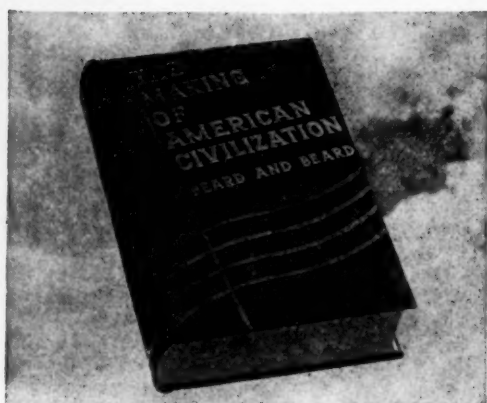


SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

HISTORY AND THE PRESENT

THAT young citizens should become acquainted with the world in which they live, aware of its problems and some of the choices that confront society, all readily agree. But the procedures to be followed are a subject for eternal and infinite disagreement. Shall we follow the record of the past as it unrolls the story of our civilization until it ends in a revelation of the present? Or shall we make a frontal attack on the institutions, conditions, and problems that immediately surround us? If the latter, shall we adopt a logical and systematic approach or shall we study issues when they happen to challenge us with their urgent importance? Or shall we make some combination of a systematic study of history with the systematic study of economic, political, and social organization, together with a parallel study of current happenings and perhaps some culminating survey of contemporary problems and issues?

SCHOOL history, once neglectful of the obligation to illuminate the present, has recently accepted the challenge to interpret the past and to explain our own day. It has not abandoned, and should not, its "cultural" values—values that have no application to earning a living or casting a vote—but certainly it has, along with the other social studies, accepted responsibility for including information, at least, needed for

practical citizenship and effective living. Whatever its deficiencies have been or still are, if history, as has often been asserted, is to mankind what memory is to man surely its study is indispensable to effective citizenship and to the consideration of public affairs. If experience sometimes paralyzes it can also sometimes stimulate and suggest. If reformers impatient of precedents are sometimes needed, so often are others who have acquired perspective, a rounded view, and a sense of the process of growth and of slow but inevitable change. Some recent textbooks have demonstrated, furthermore, that in a single volume a chronological survey of the past can be followed by consideration of contemporary issues in their historical setting, and that an account of the past can eventuate in a revealing and rewarding survey of the present.

MEANWHILE, during the past twenty and more years, the case for attention to current events and modern problems has often been urged. The result is apparent at all grade levels. Heroes, holidays, and mythology in the primary grades have frequently yielded to study of the home and the community. The environment holds the center of attention in many programs for the intermediate grades, as Mrs Falk's article in this issue illustrates to some extent. "Community life and civic problems" are studied in at least one year of many junior

high schools, and modern problems have taken a conspicuous place in the final year or two years of the senior high school. Current-events magazines have been provided for all grades and are in wide, if often superficial, use.

To the extreme view that a planned curriculum is indefensible, that all school activity should grow out of immediate needs and interests, Mrs Falk takes exception; Professor Harper's findings in his study of why children dislike history supports her comments on the unsatisfactory results of study that lacks continuity and pattern. The current superficiality and unreality of much problems study is vigorously condemned by Mr Kimmel, who indicates, furthermore, that any worthwhile study of contemporary affairs must build on a knowledge of the past and on competence in the finding and use of facts, and must utilize reliable scholarship to a greater degree than has often been possible or even deemed necessary.

IT is significant that several contributors to this issue stress quite independently the importance of the teacher, the teacher's knowledge, the teacher's contacts and experience. If textbooks fail the fault lies not with texts but the manner of their use. If history proves dull, remote from reality, unrewarding, surely it is not the experience of mankind that is at fault! If relationships among the various social-studies fields, and with other fields, are not made apparent, if understandings fail to emerge, if the study even of contemporary life proves formal, thin, uninforming, does the fault lie with too much history or too little?—in too much knowledge of present day conditions and institutions or not enough? And whose is the responsibility for making information available, for providing contacts with the immediate and the more remote environment, for drawing in the past, and for making relationships clear? Nothing is gained by scolding teachers, most of whom do our best and most of whom, unaided, are helpless to remove our limitations, but surely nothing

is gained in hewing away the historical foundations on which the study of the present rests, and in attempting without trained leaders or adequate materials the study of complex and often technical conditions of our very puzzling day. There is nothing in the present that makes its consideration any more valuable, any more interesting in the face of incompetent teaching, than the study of ancient or of medieval or of American colonial history.

In elementary and secondary schools and in junior colleges there is no question of choice between study of the past and of the present. In general education the objective is the maximum understanding of the world in which we live. For that understanding systematic study of history and systematic study of the world as it now exists about us are both necessary; neither can attain their objective without the other.

E. M. H.

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

IT is significant and hopeful for democracy that, with the tremendous change in the social and economic relationships now in progress, there has been no fundamental change in American political ideology. It is most infrequent that a reformer who advocates a change from democracy to some other form of government receives a sympathetic hearing from the American people. On the contrary it is reiterated again and again by those who would usher in a new era of economic freedom that it must be done within the existing framework of democratic institutions. Those who would go further and advocate the ultimate socialization of all wealth are careful to say that they are not in favor of immediate confiscation of property and the overthrow of the existing government, but that they realize that the process of change must be slow and that decades will pass before the change will be complete. Unless another major economic depression occurs with results far more catastrophic than the last, democracy in this country is on firm ground. This point

of view may be questioned seriously by those who see in the fluctuations in the realm of human affairs, from art and ethics to social change and revolution throughout the world, the emergence of a new and, as yet, indeterminate world order that means the end of American democracy. But, unless precipitated by some major calamity, the process of change in this country to a completely new form of government is imperceptible.

Education, then, can be reasonably sure of its function as an agent of democratic society. It has been recently pointed out that our society, in that it supports education, can reasonably expect indoctrination in democracy in the public schools of this country, and that it should require of the educational system that it develop in students the same respect for democracy that education in the totalitarian state creates in the youth of Germany, Russia, and Italy. The inference from the extreme point of view of indoctrination is that education should be required to do whatever is necessary to be done to accomplish this allegiance to democracy. The more tolerant, however, contend that indoctrination in democratic principles of government does not mean the exclusion of the good in other forms of government, but that democracy will be able to stand on its own merits in a fair examination of all the facts relevant to government. They, of course, may either discount emotion or rely on it. In either case they are ready and willing to put democracy to the test in the crucible of adolescent minds with full faith that it will remain fundamentally unaffected by the acids of communism and fascism and that it will emerge all the brighter with the tarnish of the last fifteen years dissolved.

Whatever the social change, education in America must be democratic in practice today. For the most part it must cast its lot with the masses, teaching all men of whatever station the responsibilities of citizenship and of life, and equipping them to live adequately in a democracy. It must not be

discouraged by listlessness and lethargy. It must not recoil from the excesses and violences of the embittered and those of warped ambitions, for in all of these is, and ever has been, the hope and virility of civilization. Along this path slow, recalcitrant, dolorous humanity has ever moved. Its cumulative progress has been tremendous, and the immediate prospect has always been disheartening. The disappointment and despair concomitant with all attempts to change human relations has been due to a lack of perspective and to the impatience of those who would rid the world of all its ills by merely changing the political or economic order. Human nature does change but with extraordinary imperceptibility, and the enthusiasm of modern educational tendencies is doomed to a severe reaction and disappointment.

IN undertaking to educate every one, society attempted a much greater task than it realized. The program of universal education is just beginning. The forms that it is assuming in types of schools and curricula are experimental, changing constantly as the winds of social and philosophical thought blow from left to right, from Dewey to Hutchins, and from modernity to medievalism. Basic philosophies as far apart as the poles produce programs of education as variant as the people they serve. Scholasticism returns to the university cloisters, and the limits and functions of education are as clearly defined as were the metaphysics of the Middle Ages. The soothsayers are again comforting the perplexed; the ends are clear, the methods simple though difficult, and the result is assured. In other high places there is chaos, formlessness, and flux, giving rise to fantastic and frantic programs, the haste and impatience of which are no less undesirable than the smug complacency of compartmentalized mentalities.

BETWEEN the two, however, there is emerging a program of education for democracy. Its curricula will provide for the

mind that can reflect with Plato on the eternal problems of existence. To deny this would be most undemocratic. There will be no premium on it, but it will be its own reward. There will be no particular social prestige for the student who is conversant with Homer in his own tongue, but he, too, will have his own reward. The abstractions of physics, the infinitely impractical realm of pure mathematics, and the aristocracy of music will set no man above his fellows, but his delight will be in their laws and in them he may meditate and rejoice day and night. The hand that chisels immortality in sculpture or catches the eternal in rhythm will be on an equality with the hand that produces the food, the fuel, and the raiment, but not more than equal.

Also there are adequate curricula in process of development for the workmen. The trades, in so far as practical, should be

taught by the schools. Above all, the workmen must be taught the responsibilities of citizenship. They are becoming conscious today of their political power. They are becoming aware of the fact that poverty is no longer necessary and that there is a tremendous inequality of economic opportunity. Their reaction under certain circumstance could be violence and revolution, but it is the task of education to teach them how to obtain economic freedom through the orderly processes of democracy. After all, the ultimate authority and power rests with them. Education must not only indoctrinate in democracy, but it must take as its task the training for democratic living on the part of all the people.

JOHN WALTON

Superintendent of Schools
Manchester, Ohio

Needed Revisions in Modern Problems Courses

W. G. KIMMEL

PROFITABLE consideration of this subject must take a realistic view of the complex and confused larger community beyond the school. Doubtless we should disagree on the relevancy of many aspects of the present situation in the United States and in the world at large, but certain patterns and problems seem apparent to most thoughtful persons whose insight is not blinded by self-interest. Gradually emerging from a depression which has shaken many persons out of their complacency and left many more without the possibility of reattaining personal security through their own efforts, we are confronted as a nation by the baffling problems on the one hand of levels of production in many industries rapidly approaching pre-depression volume and on the other hand of millions of unemployed clamoring for jobs and the right to live without the aid of a dole. During the depression years industries have expended millions of dollars in applications of science, invention, and technology in the form of machinery, thereby displacing temporarily

at least tens of thousands of workers, reducing labor and pension costs, and adding immeasurably to the relief burdens and tax loads for the immediate future.

WITH dividend rates climbing and the totals stepping up at the rate of 25 to 35 per cent over each preceding year, wage scales are either relatively stationary or lower since the spurt induced by the NRA, while prices and the cost of living are rising. Thus our earlier problems of maldistribution of income threaten to become more difficult, and the problem of financing the consumer by means other than borrowing on the future, unless met in a forthright manner, may again result in production outdistancing consumption to the extent of producing another major economic cataclysm.

With millions of unemployed on relief or in public works, with other millions sold down the river with loss of savings, homes, and a sense of security, with our newspapers grinding out stories indicating that recovery and prosperity are now achieved, with those entrenched in positions of economic power using their power in countless ways to block reform, we face bristling problems and issues unlikely to be rationalized in terms of nostalgia for the good old days.

THESE problems and contradictions have produced, and are likely to continue to produce, social and political repercussions. Special interest groups, through lobbying and threats of defeat of legislators in future elections, besiege our legislative halls. With

The importance of modern problems in the social-studies program needs no urging. This analysis and program was presented at a conference at Harvard University in August 1936, by the former supervisor of social studies for the state of New York and former executive secretary of the Commission on the Social Studies.

such large economic interests at stake many laws and court decisions either result or do not result in the displacement of economic power and privilege. Meanwhile angry mobs clamoring for relief and lacking the finesse of more dominant pressure groups camp in state houses and threaten legislators.

The impact of invention and technology upon our culture and folkways and mores seems incalculable. Cultural lag in different institutional patterns is only a part of the larger problem of the reintegration of a culture torn asunder in the upheavals and growing pains of large scale industrial and corporate development. Nineteenth-century practices in social organization and government are attempting to operate side by side with twentieth-century developments in industry and business. The continuing division of labor, the increasing number of rôles played by most people, the dissociation of making a living from living a life, the commercialization and exploitation for profit of an increasing number of activities—all produce crises and maladjustments.

ALL of the problems implied in this hasty sketch bear upon still more basic problems. Do those in positions of great economic power possess a sufficiently long time view to be willing to forego immediate and transitory advantages in favor of more stable ultimate advantages to the nation? Can we prevent economic cataclysms without thoroughgoing economic and social planning? Will it be possible to provide for a more equitable distribution of the national income by peaceable means in order that a greater volume of consumption may tend to balance production? Will business and industry be sufficiently long-sighted to assume an increasing measure of responsibility for the security of employees, or will they be willing to plunge their employees further into technological feudalism? In the struggle for the greater diffusion of economic power, can our representative form of government survive or shall we be plunged into some form of fascism?

It is in this kind of setting that one may consider not only the shortcomings of present courses in modern problems but also needed revisions in such courses. Merely to consider revisions in terms of current practices would be to ignore one of the most challenging opportunities faced by social-studies teachers, and to be negligent in our duty to youth.

IN order to get our bearings it may be well to refer briefly to the report of the Committee on the Social Studies, which was largely responsible for the introduction of courses in modern problems into secondary schools. The committee seems to have been concerned with the inclusion of such materials as would more closely meet the needs of pupils, as well as with furnishing a capstone course for social-studies programs. Not the least important reason seems to have been the administrative consideration of arranging pupil programs in one two-term course rather than three one-term courses.¹

THE more recent Commission on the Social Studies, after amassing detailed and voluminous materials on many phases of social-studies instruction, set forth a series of suggestions which are pertinent to the subject under consideration.

The program of social science instruction should provide for a realistic study of the life, institutions, and culture of contemporary America. In doing this, it cannot omit study of the inefficiencies, the corruptions, the tensions, the conflicts, the contradictions and the injustices of the age, or consideration of the material and spiritual potentialities implicit in man's mastery of natural forces.

The program of social science instruction should make generous provision for the thorough and judicial study of all the great theories, philosophies, and programs, however radical or conservative they may appear, which have been designed to deal with the growing tensions and problems of industrial society.²

With reference to the upper level of the

¹ Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, Committee on the Social Studies, *The Social Studies* (U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, no. 28, 1916).

² *Conclusions and Recommendations, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies*. New York: Scribner, 1934. pp. 53-54.

social-studies program in the senior high school, the commission suggested that

This program might culminate in the study, through concrete and living materials, of regional geography, or comparative economics, government and cultural sociology, of the major movements in social thought and action in the modern world, of the most recent developments on the international stage—a study in which the experience, the knowledge and the thought of all the preceding years would be brought to bear, by means of comparison and contrast, upon the emerging problems, tensions, and aspirations, the evolving social programs and philosophies of mankind and of the American people, their regional and world setting.³

In making this comprehensive suggestion the commission, in line with its general policy, did not present a definite plan of organization of material to implement its comprehensive proposal. It did offer, however, some suggestions for judging the relative merits of organizing materials in terms of subjects and of organizing them in the form of problems which cut across the traditional boundaries of subjects.

Without wishing to emphasize what has been called "the conventional boundaries" between the several social disciplines—boundaries which have never been treated as rigid and which of late have been increasingly and very profitably cut across—the Commission repudiates the notion that any general or comprehensive social science has been created which transcends the disciplines themselves. Each of these branches of scholarship furnishes a distinctive point of view from which materials are surveyed and brought into an organization of knowledge; each contributes in its own way to general human insight into the world of man and society.⁴

In another paragraph the Commission offers two additional suggestions for an organization in terms of problems.

The program of social science instruction, besides including bodies of knowledge and thought, should introduce the younger generation to *sources* for new and current materials and to *methods* of inquiry, scrutiny, criticism, authentication, and verification.⁵

THUS the foregoing excerpts from the commission's report, if we interpret them correctly, pose two questions. Can materials

dealing with basic problems faced by contemporary society be so organized and taught as to afford pupils an understanding of the concepts of political science, economics, sociology? At the same time do they enable pupils to apply these concepts in the consideration of the various proposals made for handling and for the rationalization of such basic problems? The answers to these two questions from our point of view will determine whether we shall organize materials at the twelfth-grade level in terms of problems or in terms of separate courses in government, economics, sociology. In stating this point of view it is assumed that one of the major purposes of instruction, so seldom achieved, is the filtering down of the thought and systems of ideas of scholars in the social sciences to the students in our secondary schools. Unless this end is achieved to a much greater extent than seems to be true at the present time, there is grave danger that, with the emphasis in the adjustment of pupils to their environment, we shall attempt to gain this end without regard to the ideas of scholars and experts, thereby promoting rather than discouraging the present trend toward anti-intellectualism in our secondary schools. A tendency to regard the social studies as a grab bag from which to pull assortments of facts as needed, without regard to the underlying systems of ideas from which they are evolved and through which they take on meaning and significance, accounts largely for the present confusion in the social studies. In other words it is maintained here that any conception of the social-studies instruction which is divorced from basic systems of thought in the social sciences at best defeats the basic reason for instruction in whatever unique contributions these subjects may make to the education of youth, and at worst saddles youth with a confusing jargon devoid of meaning while at the same time rendering youth susceptible to mass suggestion at the hands of any demagogue who uses the jargon as shibboleths for special interests and selfish causes.

³Ibid., p. 61.

⁴Ibid., pp. 6-7.

⁵Ibid., p. 54.

MERELY to pose problems for study by youth and then to gather facts from casual and indiscriminating sources and put them together in equally casual patterns is an over-simplification of the instructional process, because it leaves out of consideration the concepts and cluster of ideas which determine, or should determine, not only the facts to be brought to bear upon the problem but also the order of presentation and the end products to be achieved in instruction. It is the omission of this important aspect in courses of study and in instruction in some problems courses and some of the newer types of integrated and fusion programs which seems to render them potentially pointless and ineffectual because they lack organizing principles, and hence centers of ideas and peripheries.

Presumably J. Lynn Barnard recognized this danger when, in sponsoring a course in modern problems, he suggested that teachers work through the economic, social, and governmental relationships of a problem under consideration with pupils. In other words he wished pupils to gain an understanding of the complex relationships of any problem in terms of whatever contributions in terms of ideas each of these social sciences might make. This conception furnished a principle for the organization of materials, but apparently it has found little favor at the hands of committees in the development of problems courses and of teachers of such courses.

Whether it is possible so to organize instructional material in the form of a modern-problems course and at the same time attain the valuable contributions to be gained through instruction in separate courses in government, economics, and sociology will depend in part upon the assumptions made, and to a much greater degree upon the extent to which teachers are able to assemble and to present materials incorporating the basic contributions of each approach. Further consideration of the confused problems of assumptions and ideas underlying such a course is not possible

here; this discussion will concern the problems course as now organized and as it might be organized.

ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE

IN the analysis of courses in modern problems one is impressed not infrequently with the lack of a theoretical basis and structural framework on which the course is projected and the problems are assembled. It is accordingly difficult to evaluate the materials included in the courses under analysis. Conferences with teachers working as committee members in the construction of courses reveal this difficulty, particularly when they work on some "grand plan" set by superior school officers.

The following series of suggestions has been developed for the guidance of teachers organizing modern problems courses. This is to be regarded as a tentative formulation to be subjected to trial use. It is believed, however, that these suggestions involve a consistent approach to the organization of materials.

1. The materials of the course will consist of basic problems of contemporary life as differentiated from so-called surface problems, which are in reality merely temporary tensions and more or less ephemeral manifestations of conflict situations involved in the more basic underlying problems. Basic problems are to be conceived and selected in terms of the insights which may be contributed by concepts, generalizations, and approaches of the social sciences, not in terms of community conflict situations, which are tensions produced by deeper phenomena.

2. In the selection of problems for inclusion in the course, basic and continuing problems of contemporary life which flare up from time to time as current issues of nation-wide concern either in terms of politics or otherwise should be given preference wherever possible.

3. Inasmuch as basic problems which become current issues change from year to year, the problems selected for study, in part at least, may also change from year to year. Not the least important consideration here is the incentive to continued mental growth and mental alertness on the part of teachers offering the course.

4. Inasmuch as many current issues are mere surface manifestations of more basic problems similar to those that occurred in the past and are very likely to recur in the future, provision must always be made for the abstracting and review of pupils' command of earlier courses in the social-studies program both in the time schedule for the course and in classroom presentation.

5. The course will be organized in terms of basic

clusters of ideas, concepts, and relationships concerned with a given problem which pupils shall be expected to master through analyses and syntheses of facts, situations, conflicts of forces and groups, and many and diverse types of illustrative materials. These latter elements are merely means to ends mentioned above.

6. The number of problems to be considered and mastered in a given school year will be small enough to allow ample time for the systematic consideration of many-sided views including all phases of situations, conditions, forces, plans, proposals, and personalities.

7. Although some of the problems selected for study will change from year to year, the order of organization of problems for instructional purposes and the order of their presentation in the classroom will always conform to the basic processes at work in contemporary society.

8. Since the course is planned for the sake of the pupils enrolled rather than for the values of the course per se, the selection of materials on problems will be made, in part, in terms of whether they can readily be comprehended by pupils, the depth, breadth, and range of materials, and the extent of their consideration will also be conceived in terms of the relative intelligence and social maturity of pupils.

9. The course will be planned in terms of the pupils who will finish their formal schooling careers as well as for those who will enter colleges and universities. The special needs of both groups must be considered and differentiated by those responsible for planning the course.

10. For pupils completing their formal schooling in the secondary school the course will be focused primarily in terms of the understanding of the diverse and complex forces which play upon our community and national life, the systematic and cumulative presentation of ideas, the development of powers of analysis and synthesis of materials and the testing of pupils' command of these powers, the development of a social point of view, the development of minds sufficiently disciplined to view and to weigh problems and issues in a dispassionate manner, the process of arriving at tentative judgments on basic problems in contemporary life, and the stimulation of interests to the extent that pupils will carry over into adult life continuing desires for reading, discussion, and evaluation.

11. For pupils entering college these ends are equally important. In addition these pupils should gain as thorough a grounding in concepts and ability to apply them as their intelligence and the time element in handling material permit. They must also be handled competently in the classroom to eradicate erroneous conception and views, in order to avoid unlearning much that is useless and inexact in their later college courses in the social sciences.

12. The course will be concerned, in part, with life problems of pupils, but only indirectly and as a secondary consideration; for example, all pupils will become acutely aware of the requirements for certain professions and vocations and the puzzling and complex problems associated therewith, but only as an indirect result of their study. It is not one of the purposes of the course to supply pep talks and propaganda for college entrance, nor to appeal only to individualistic

conceptions of success in a given profession or line of endeavor.

13. In planning the content to be mastered in connection with each problem, provision will be made for the systematic and logical organization of materials from the standpoint of the teacher or person of mature mind, to the end that the pupils' command of materials may be cumulative, that provision will be made for the recurrence of concepts and applications in new situations, and that adequate attention will be given to insights that are new in terms of ever larger relationships revealed between content and problems.

14. Since the course is planned so as to be of direct value to pupils, provision will be made for the psychological approach in the introduction of pupils to the problems and the opening up of problems in the classroom, with pupils approaching a logical and systematic organization as a result of study involving the analysis and synthesis of materials.

15. Provision will be made for the inclusion of adequate lists of reading for each problem, for suitable learning exercises, for investigations by pupils of different aspects of the problem in the community, and other related types of activities.

THE underlying conception of a course in modern problems indicated in this series of suggestions anticipates the selection of problems and a working approach in the organization of materials not ordinarily found in many courses of study. Some basis for selection is always stated or implied in any course. In analyzing courses the impression is gained that tensions and conflict situations produced in more or less formalized institutional behavior patterns by the impact of the applications of science and technology are of major concern, but that the approach is not made through emphasis upon basic problems for the control of economic and political power unleashed through science and technology, with the consequent disintegration of culture and institutional behavior patterns and the attendant tensions, conflict situations, and dramatization of issues which inevitably follow in the train of such major changes. Courses, in other words, seem to be focused on effects of major changes rather than upon the understanding of constellations of forces producing changes. It is with the hope of focusing attention upon basic problems that the suggestions are offered.

In line with the suggestions stated above, the following list of basic problems is pro-

posed from which items may be selected to form the basis for the organization of materials for a course in modern problems:⁶ consumers and their needs; the power age; economic and social planning; development of adequate housing; provision for adequate medical and health services; utilization of leisure; more adequate distribution of goods and services; fairer distribution of the earnings of industry; more satisfactory industrial relations; unemployment and unemployment insurance; social security; economic nationalism and international trade; regulation and control of public utilities; regulation and control of communications; regulation and control of transportation facilities; development of intelligent public opinion; taxation of local government; reorganization of local government; development of responsible government; public administration and adequate civil service.

IN the adaptation of this master list of problems to meet the needs of different types of schools and communities, many changes are possible. In smaller towns and cities which are primarily residential, "development of adequate housing," "fairer distribution of the earnings of industry," and "more satisfactory industrial relations" may be displaced by "provisions for pleasanter rural life," "the development of mutually satisfactory relations between country and city." For these and similar types of communities emphasis in certain problems may be shifted from "consumers and their needs" to "farm consumers and their needs," from "more adequate distribution of goods and services" to "distribution of agricultural products," from "economic and social planning" to "economic and social planning from the standpoint of rural communities."

⁶The words "problem" or "problems" are omitted from titles here in order to avoid monotonous repetition; they may be included in the materials for use by pupils and teachers in order to stress the problem aspect in the selection and study of materials.

In schools in which pupils are assembled in classes in groups of varying abilities, for slow learners such problems as "development of adequate housing," "economic and social planning," "the power age," "economic nationalism and international trade," and "public administration and an adequate civil service" may be displaced by "problems of the community," "home and family relationships," "educational possibilities on the job," "types of work and available jobs." For slow pupils it will also be desirable to focus problems in the form of particular aspects, for example, "regulation and control of the radio" may be substituted for "regulation and control of communications." Again, more stress may be placed upon the study of the local community aspects of problems through direct experiences and more concrete materials with groups of slow learners.

FOR pupils enrolled in vocational and commercial courses, other adaptations may be made. In addition to the study of problems in which the dominant emphasis is economic and social, it is possible to organize one-quarter to one-half of the course about problems of adjustment to the various types of work for which pupils are preparing. Working in close co-operation with the teachers in these areas and with the counsellors in the selection of problems, the major purpose of instruction will be to provide a background of experience and insight in order that the pupils will know what to expect and that the transition and consequent adjustment from schools to jobs in the workaday world may be as painless as possible. This phase of the course may also be regarded as obligatory for all pupils who are not planning to attend college.

It is readily admitted that there are many omissions in the master list of problems. International organization and international relations are omitted because such materials, it seems, can be handled more adequately both in terms of background and present status in the history courses. Such

problems as center in the family and other similar institutions are omitted from the master list because the folkways of most communities will prohibit realistic treatment of many aspects, for example, birth control, divorce, and psychological phases of behavior patterns. Such problems are more in the nature of tensions produced by the disintegration of culture patterns under the impact of technological and other phases of social change than they are basic problems. Merely to indoctrinate pupils to the conventional phases of institutionalized behavior without systematic treatment of the influence of potent basic phenomena upon such institutions as the family and the church may promote maladjustment on the part of pupils.

THE order of presentation of problems in the overorganization of the course in modern problems will depend in large part upon the conceptions held by the teachers; but it seems essential to stress the importance of some underlying conception in order that the structural framework will not be based upon the shifting sands so prevalent in many of the newer programs in the social studies.⁷ The order in which the problems are presented in the master list is in line with the guiding suggestions mentioned above, namely, basic problems in the economic and social areas in modern life arising out of the applications of science and technology and the rapid tempo of social change result in the disintegration of culture patterns, in the shifts and concentration of economic and financial power, in the imbalance of regional development of the country, in the increasing maladjustment between city and rural community, in the concentration of population in metropolitan centers which expand over different

traditional governmental units, and in countless other aspects. The resulting conflict situations and tensions bring pressure groups banded together for self protection or for the retention of privileges. Laws are enacted which attempt to regulate and control through administrative bodies; the courts try to harness the economic leviathan in terms of systems of ideas and practices of an earlier age or else give it free rein because it has outdistanced the systems of legal ideas and practices. And if the pressure continues, the legislative-judicial-administrative phases of the process are all tried over again on another basis.

IN addition to underlying conceptions of processes influencing the order in which problems are presented, instruction should also keep these processes constantly before pupils both in the selection and organization of materials and in the outcomes to be expected in the form of changes in the thought of pupils. A word of caution at this point may not be amiss. In the acceptance of such an assumption of underlying processes at work in contemporary society, it does not follow that economic and cultural determinism is to be accepted without further analysis or in a spirit of fatalism. On the contrary pupils should gain a realistic outlook concerning the possibilities of the people through effective organization under a government operating through representative forms and fictions to gain control of these forces by legal means and to use them for the greatest good of the greatest number. Through sedulous cultivation in the public mind of an almost mystical attitude toward business and industry which is intended to leave the impression that "free business enterprise" is a part of the eternal verities, the little fellow is supposed to believe in "every man a king," and that there is a pot of gold at the end of the rainbow for him. Unless the schools and modern problems teachers in particular can counteract in some small measure current trends in the indoctrination of business ideologies and

⁷"The order in which major social functions and the aspects of the centers of interest for each grade are presented has no particular significance." *Tentative Course of Study for the Core Curriculum of Virginia Secondary Schools: Grade VIII*, p. 18 (Richmond: State Board of Education Bulletin, vol. XVII, no. 2, August, 1934).

of economic determinism in our schools through the building of the conception of a social organization in which individuals may band together with their fellows to gain social ends, realistic instruction may only result in a sense of fatalism, cynicism, and ultimately exploitation of one's fellows, if one attains to a position of power. In the examination of constructive proposals, teachers will lead pupils necessarily to the ideas of social scientists for their analyses of problems. Unless the economic leviathan can be made to work for the greatest good of the greatest number it is likely to lead to fascism and technological feudalism.

IT is a debatable question as to how much the schools, inevitably embedded in the same disorganization of cultural patterns and confusion in thought and counsel as the larger world, can accomplish toward gaining such desirable social ends. Yet in a modern problems course at least an introduction and an orientation to the problems can be provided; a beginning can be made toward an understanding of the relevant concepts and clusters of ideas through a rich body of materials; proposals as to methods of attack and techniques for handling problems advanced by experts and all sorts of individuals and special interest groups can be canvassed; issues can be examined and analyzed; the experience of other nations in dealing with the same problems can be described. If such purposes are handled through appropriate techniques by intelligent teachers with a broad and deep command of content and of current realities, pupils may be expected to develop curiosity about modern problems, to become humble before the imponderable element in any problem, to develop an attitude of uncertainty rather than finality about the next steps to be taken, and to assume a personal sense of responsibility for keeping informed. Through the use and application of the apparatus of scholarship in the analysis and synthesis of materials under the guidance of competent teachers, they may be

expected to make small beginnings toward the settlement of an emancipated outlook on life, a detached point of view, and intellectual sophistication. Thus the more intelligent pupils at least, freed from the controls of popular mysticism, superstition, and prejudice, may have an opportunity to rise to the level of more balanced personalities. Thus may youths become free men and women, free in mind regardless of the extent to which their working hours may temporarily be fettered under whatever system is in operation.

THE CLASSROOM SITUATION

HOW to implement such conceptions of the purposes and materials of a course in modern problems involves considerations more prosaic in nature. The most important element in the total situation is the teacher. A course so conceived can only be handled to best advantage by teachers possessed of the qualifications set forth so forcibly by the Commission on the Social Studies. It is entirely possible that the course is the most difficult to handle effectively in the entire social-studies program, because a working command of the thought and materials of all the social sciences is essential.

A second important element is a classroom equipped as a workroom. The physical equipment for the room may include tables and chairs, filing cases for fugitive materials, book shelves, cabinets for charts and maps, bulletin boards, and such other equipment as may be needed for the different activities, mental and manual, in which pupils will be engaged. While less convenient, the conventional desks may be used, when larger tables and chairs can not be made available.

THE following types of materials for use by pupils may be kept in the work room or in the school library as needed: systematic and reasonably complete treatment of problems or some phases or aspects of them by individual authors; popular or semi-

popular presentations of many-sided points of view of different groups, pressure groups, and influential individuals in the form of books, pamphlets, magazine articles, and newspapers and weeklies; autobiographies, biographies, memoirs, and works of persons who have been influential in the development of problems, conflict situations, etc., as well as in the crystallizing of public opinion, policies, and practices dealing with basic problems; novels and fictional propaganda which frequently present revealing insights on problems, conflicts, and conflict groups, and situations. Types of materials for teachers are similar to those for pupils; in addition they include systematic researches, either by individuals or groups, on the basic content essential to an understanding of problems; reports of official and unofficial commissions and committees; systematic treatments of theories underlying problems or aspects of problems in all fields in the social sciences as well as social psychology, administration, law, jurisprudence, and other related fields. In addition to the printed materials for reading and study, supplies in the form of paper for graphs and charts, files for printed charts and graphs, and systems for the filing and handling of clippings and other types of fugitive materials to be used by pupils will be included in a well stocked workroom.

Pupils may also be expected to regard the community as a source of study, equally as important as other materials as a repository of information and points of view to those initiated to its use as a laboratory. In addition to materials in the classroom pupils may be expected to utilize the library resources of school and community.

ASSUMING a gifted teacher, an adequately equipped workroom, and a group of pupils more or less curious about the problems of contemporary society, some directions as to the ways to handle the materials on a given problem are needed, if much waste motion and confusion are to be avoided. A convenient point of departure

is found in the use of a guidance outline in order to introduce pupils to the materials and to suggest materials and references to be examined and mastered. This outline may be organized so as to chart certain approaches to aspects of the problem, so arranged that pupils may grasp such aspects most readily. A psychological rather than a logical approach to materials is desired because it is only through reading, study, and reflection that logical relationships may be apprehended by the pupil. To provide such a logical organization in the guidance outline is to rob the pupil of one of the most challenging ends to be gained through study. The following guidance outline for "Consumers and Their Needs," with reading references omitted, is only one of many approaches.

I. Your choices as a consumer: how you make them; wide range; changes in your buying habits; relation to your allowance and personal budget; advertising in theory and practice; attempts to control advertising; grading and labelling; standardization; trademarks.

II. Trends in consumption: factors of importance; relation to production, income distribution, availability of money and credit; credit unions; urbanization.

III. Standards of living: relation to income distribution and credit facilities; installment buying and selling; budgets; necessities and luxuries.

IV. Protection of the consumer: governmental and non-governmental agencies; legal restrictions and their failure because of lack of effective legislation; new bills.

V. Education of the consumer: economic illiteracy; governmental aids; what the schools do and might do; "educational" campaigns of producers; institutes and other devices; technical findings presented in popular form; consumer co-operation and co-operatives.

CLASSROOM PROCEDURES

IT is obvious that the conceptions of purposes, problems, and school situations outlined above imply something more thoroughgoing and fruitful than the usual form of directed study and reciting of lessons. At the same time, formalized techniques of a mechanized type may defeat the purposes of a course which should be flexible and subject to a frequent change within the framework of an overorganization of problems selected for study. Despite all the emphasis upon methods in the education of teachers, we shall await techniques ap-

propriate to the social studies which may help us to turn up the values claimed for them. And the dearth of tested techniques suitable for use in modern problems is even more noticeable than for the social studies as a whole.

A SUITABLE working technique or series of techniques in modern problems involves the introduction and orientation of problems; methods of study of the materials on the problem found in the workroom, school library, and in the agencies in the community as well as the study of the problem in its manifestations in the community; methods of gaining an understanding of special interest groups related to the problem; ways to gain group agreement as to proposals for handling the problem; methods for gaining proficiency in the reading, written work, and testing programs, all of which are integral parts of the study of any and all problems in the course; ways of organizing the relationships between ideas into some kind of coherent and unified whole near the close of the work on the problem.

Using the problem "consumers and their needs," a suitable orientation may be gained by starting a group discussion during the first day.⁸ The aim will be to arouse interest, to gain some idea of the command of information and erroneous impressions possessed by pupils, and to encourage the statement of conflicting points of view. Questions may be raised concerning the buying habits of pupils, how they make selections, how they stretch their allowance to cover wants and needs, whether any of them keep personal budgets, and so on.

After one or more periods of this type of procedure, the teacher may give a systematic talk dealing with various aspects of the problem, the aim being to arouse interest,

⁸ Readers familiar with the technique developed by H. C. Morrison in his *The Practice of Teaching in Secondary Schools* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1931) will recognize my indebtedness, as well as certain modifications of some steps in the author's contributions.

to open up the problem, and to suggest approaches to further study. Following such an informal lecture, copies of the guidance outline may be distributed with further directions for study. The individual and group work in the community, proceeding from the materials available in the workroom to the investigatory activities in the community, may cover a period of from two to four weeks. Investigatory activities may include surveys of ranges of choices of products in different types of stores; surveys of buying habits of people; the kinds of trademarks, labels, brands, and standards found on packaged products; analyses of radio advertising, advertising in newspapers, magazines, public transportation facilities, etc.; study of model and actual budgets; and a whole range of other types.

In addition to using the reading and written work program in part as testing, tests of the new type as well as hypothetical problem situations will be set for pupils near the close of this phase of their work on the problem. Probably the most severe test will be the preparation, without the aid of notes, of analytical outlines which reveal the pupils' conceptions of basic relationships in "consumers and their needs."

A USEFUL technique in the consideration of attempts by government to protect the consumer is the tracing of the legislative and administrative history of a particular law such as the food and drugs act. Using, for example, the long history of attempts to enact a statute in Congress, it is possible to trace the different bills as they are lost in the different phases of the legislative process. Such study will include the special interest groups and lobbying; the final enactment of the law minus some of its teeth in 1906; the setting up of the food and drugs administration; the pressure of special interests on this bureau; unsuccessful attempts to give the bureau more power through amendments to the law; the work of the federal trade commission in this area; the fight carried frequently to the courts;

the so-called Tugwell bill and its revisions with the extraction of its teeth; the revised bill still lost in the legislative shuffle after several sessions of Congress with reasons for ignoring the need for further protection of the consumer. In tracing the legislative history of these latest bills a convenient device to use is a horizontal line; place on this line from "left" to "right" the different organized groups on the basis of their positions with respect to the bill gained from the study of hearings before congressional committees and other sources. Another device is to make a schedule of the different steps through which these bills have passed by using small circles and connecting them with lines to indicate the patterns. Pupils using such devices gain a realistic understanding of legislative history, special interest groups, lobbying, and the like, which make the memorized recital of the formal steps by which "a bill becomes a law" seem like shadow boxing. They also learn a good deal about the relations of business and government.

One of the most important outcomes of instruction in modern problems should be the development of an attitude of uncertainty before imponderable and unpredictable forces rather than the cocksureness all too many pupils gain, if one may believe college instructors' statements that they spend much time blasting erroneous conceptions out of students' minds. The technique mentioned above may help in this effort. In addition it is possible to have pupils attempt to state a proposition or proposal with respect to a controversial aspect of the consumer problem on which they can all agree; then as a result of further

study to try to raise the level of the statement, and find out how many agree. The purpose is not to have pupils become polite "yes men" but rather to encourage them to assume responsibility for arriving at reasoned judgments, subject always to change on the basis of new and convincing evidence.

SUMMARY

AN attempt has been made to set forth an orientation for a course in modern problems in a setting of the baffling problems confronting the American people, to indicate some aspects in the conflicting views of separate subjects versus a problems course, to furnish suggestions for guidance in the organization of such a course as well as a master list of problems which may be adapted in different ways for use with pupils of varying abilities and in various types of communities, and to offer suggestions for the internal organization of materials and for techniques appropriate for use in such a course. These from our own point of view offer suggestions for needed revisions. By implication they also furnish clues to the deficiencies of present courses of study and instruction in modern problems.

That pupils will respond to this approach is indicated by isolated teachers who are experimenting with it. The challenge is set for more teachers to do so. To the frequent rejoinder that it offers many difficulties because teachers are lacking in content, schools are not equipped, programs are too inflexible, the materials are controversial, we can only say—only the strong can win the race.

Perspective for the Southern Race Question

CHESTER McA. DESTLER

WHENEVER white people in the South think about the black man, we are apt to recall some familiar figure who typifies for us the virtues or faults of the other southern race. The conduct or misconduct of colored laundress, field hand, cook, and mechanic is a staple topic in conversation throughout the turpentine, tobacco, and cotton South. Anecdotes of stolen hams, faithful tenants, "sanctified" cooks, or "Uncle Remus darkies" enliven frontporch gatherings and re-enforce traditional attitudes toward the black people. At the same time life and work together have tended to perpetuate a pattern of practical co-operation that minimizes interracial friction and produces much friendship and mutual esteem. Few, except scattered liberals, give much thought to abstract questions of justice in race relations. Almost all are regulated by the accepted customs and attitudes of the community whose influence is too great for average individuals to challenge successfully even if they wished.

In such a pattern the Negro's place is that of a class only two generations up from slavery. Consignment of the freedman to

menial positions, denial of social recognition and community services, to say nothing of a proportionate voice in politics, characterize all societies in the transition away from a servile to a freer régime. Obvious differences in color and general appearance have obscured this fact, which determines popular attitudes and practices more than we care to admit. All peoples have looked down upon freedmen, former slaves and their descendants, with contempt and distrust. Greek, Roman, feudal noble, and modern aristocrat have denied social recognition and full political rights to those whose ancestry or occupation has a servile character. The famous yachtsman, Sir Thomas Lipton, was denied membership in the British Royal Yacht Club, because he had once worked with his hands. Small wonder then that a white South only two generations away from slavery should perpetuate its discriminations.

SOUTHERN ECONOMIC SYSTEM

THE Negro's dilemma, however, is hardly as simple as this analysis would suggest. If it were, time would solve all problems of social relationship as the freedmen lose their identity in the larger mass. The Negro's problem is greatly complicated by several neglected factors. Among these is the traditional southern economy. Today, as in 1700, it is predicated upon cheap and servile labor. As long as the region remains wedded to a hand labor, staple economy, and mill-village industry, any people that occupy the bottom rungs of the economic ladder will suffer poverty and social subordination.

This discussion of a continuing problem in American society is contributed by the chairman of the division of social sciences in the South Georgia Teachers College, Collegeboro, Georgia.

Surely the condition of the white sharecropper and textile-mill worker suggests the validity of this observation. Ignorance, superstition, poverty, and misery are invariable concomitants of such a situation. These conditions, when exhibited by large masses, are invariably used to justify shabby treatment and oppose remedial measures. Quite obviously an ex-slave class will be destined by public opinion to serve indefinitely in the lowest occupations.

Another complicating factor has been the high birthrate of southern white people. Now nearly twice that of other parts of the nation, it has long since overtaken the occupational resources of the South. With skilled jobs and land at a premium, the poorer whites have invaded field after field once monopolized by the freedmen.¹ In consequence white tenants outnumber black in an overexpanded agriculture, while white laborers indulge in sporadic violence to oust Negro competitors from the better jobs in southern cities. In industry and agriculture the Negro has lost ground since 1920, and little prospect has opened up for improvement of his economic condition in the southern states.² Without some brightening of the economic outlook little general improvement in Negro culture in the South can be expected.

NEGRO HERITAGE

BETTER known but seldom taken into consideration in assessing the progress of the Negro are the retarding effects of slavery itself and of an earlier African origin. The barbarism of the latter environment, far more primitive than the culture into which the kidnapped blacks were thrust, made the transition to civilization inevitably slow and difficult. Slavery had

¹T. J. Woofter, Jr., *Southern Population and Social Planning*. Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1936. 15c; *Population Problems in the South*. 710 Standard Building, Atlanta, Ga: Conference on Education and Race Relations, 1937. 30c.

²*Recent Trends in Race Relations*. Atlanta, Ga: Conference on Education and Race Relations, 5th ed., 1936, pp. 6-7, 11.

even worse effects. It discouraged initiative, a sense of responsibility, and the establishment of a stable family system. Handicapped by an ignorance previously enforced by law and an almost complete lack of thrift habits the Negro began a life of freedom completely devoid of the equipment necessary for successful living in an individualistic society. The lack of capital, as well as alienation of southern white sentiment by Radical Reconstruction and the Negro's previous servile status, made several generations of economic and social dependence inevitable. This helplessness of the Negro made for peonage or predial serfdom in many localities. Not totally defunct in the South today,³ such peonage or serfdom is likewise a product of social transition and cultural retardation. So also is the almost general dependence of successful Negroes upon white patrons in the agricultural counties, where protection from injustice and even purchase of land⁴ is possible for the black only under white patronage.

If all this is correct, then, many discriminations made against the Negro would have been laid down irrespective of race and color. Fears for the safety of southern civilization would have been felt, assumptions of inherent inferiority would have been made, and reluctance to grant full social and civic rights would have been manifest toward any group of freedmen.

COLORS SKIN

DIFFERENCE in color between the former master and servant classes, also, has had some very significant effects. In one sense it has helped to attract to the freedmen philanthropic aid from outside sources on a scale that otherwise could hardly have been matched. On the other hand color has served to harden and perpetuate discrimi-

³*Recent Trends*, p. 11.

⁴A. F. Raper, *Preface to Peasantry*. Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1936, pp. 122-125. This book, with the possible exception of C. S. Johnson, *Shadow of the Plantation*, Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1934, furnishes the best picture of contemporary race relations in the southeastern black belts.

nations in social practice that would have been transitory had master and ex-slave been of the same skin. It has handicapped individuals who otherwise might have risen to full social recognition within the South and has been the focal point of many inevitable antagonisms in the period of transition. Free labor in any case would have resented the competition of the ex-slave; but as a generation passed it would have been increasingly difficult to tell who were freedmen, had color distinction been absent. As it is, the opposition of white labor tends to keep the Negro in the lowest income bracket, a situation that any employer can use to beat down white wages. This condition, possible over any length of time only because of color, is fraught with tragedy for southern labor, both black and white.

Color, too, has prevented any general recognition of the great potential talents of the freedmen, just as it has helped perpetuate discriminations that prevent great development of these abilities. Sober consideration of the achievements of the Negro within the two generations that followed emancipation suggests to the unbiased observer how great are the natural capacities of the black race. Although we pay tribute to the genius of a George Carver, and thousands of white persons were gripped by the drama and the music of the actors of *Green Pastures*, we ignore the less spectacular achievements of thousands who offer, in unpublicized deeds, tangible evidence of talent and perseverance.⁵ Such talents and capacity, no matter how well they compare with those of white folk,⁶ could, if fully cultivated and developed, add substantially to the wealth and culture of the South. The emergence of two hundred thousand Negro landowners in southern states within forty-five years after emancipation, the

twenty thousand Negro business enterprises in existence when the great depression began, and the qualification of thousands for skilled occupations all the way from steel production to medical practice after graduation from Harvard Medical School are harbingers of still greater contributions to regional well-being. When the South decides to use its better judgment rather than its prejudices in defining social policies toward the freedmen, all will benefit from their increased purchasing power, better health, and better education.

POSSIBLE SOLUTION

DIFFERENCE in color delays but does not postpone forever the re-formulation of racial policies in fields where the advantages to the region are obvious. Already thousands of white southerners of both sexes have joined organizations that combat the worst abuses.⁷ The Conference on Education and Race Relations in Atlanta is conducting quietly an educational campaign of great significance. The war generation is rapidly passing away. With it goes the old hatreds and bitter memories. The race prejudice in politics, the stock in trade of every bankrupt politician of the last generation, has lost its grip, if we can judge by the fate of recent efforts to revive the "Jim Crow" issue. The conviction is spreading, also, that our major problems are not those of race relationship but rather are to be found in the region's poverty, in its health problems, in its poor educational facilities, in the low skill of its laboring millions. Stirred by a growing social conscience the South will tackle these problems more and more on their merits in coming decades. Their solution, of necessity, elevates black as well as white. This promises, also, to raise the color line from a horizontal to a vertical position and thus open the door of opportunity to all of both races while it preserves the integrity of each.

⁵ See *America's Tenth Man*. Atlanta, Ga: Conference on Education and Race Relations, 1931, 10c, and M. N. Work, ed., *Negro Year Book*, 1936-37. Tuskegee Institute, Ala: Negro Year Book Pub. Co., 1937, pp. 1-18.

⁶ On this subject see Otto Klineberg, *Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration*. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1935.

⁷ The Southern Commission on the Study of Lynching and the Association of Southern Women for the Prevention of Lynching issue numerous pamphlets.

The Civil Service and the Social-Studies Curriculum

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

NO question is, perhaps, today more pertinent to the development of social-science curricula in our junior and senior high schools than is the place of public administration in contemporary America. Probably one reason why it has not received greater attention in the past is the relative insignificance of its treatment in the available textbooks, which reflect, no doubt, the prevailing American attitude toward the civil service.

Certainly the reason for a reappraisal of its importance does not lie in the recent rapid expansion of governmental services, which has tended to focus public attention upon what was by many conceived as a new and startling innovation.¹ As Professor Dawson has clearly brought out, the development of principles and practices in

¹ See C. H. Woodey, *Growth of Federal Agencies 1915-1932*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1934; L. F. Schmeckebier, *New Federal Organizations*. Washington: Brookings Institution, 1934.

Last month Professor Edgar Dawson in "Teaching Administrative Management" brought out not only the significance of the field of public administration and civil service but indicated how, against the background of its development, the whole question needs to be explored further. In this article a teacher of political science at Amherst College continues the discussion of the schools' responsibilities and opportunities.

the field of administration is over a century old. And historians would, no doubt, emphasize the much older records of both principle and practice in medieval European developments.² Even in this country "civil service reform" can boast three-quarters of a century of consistent activity. In its more recent phases, broader aspects of the general problem of administrative management—the structural organization of government, the provision of adequate services made necessary by the conditions of life in our contemporary economy, the whole range of physical, economic, and social planning—have become inevitably the subject of analysis and experiment. Considered therefore as a subject for historical and comparative study, quite apart from other values, public administration is no longer a minor field. What will be attempted here is a brief consideration of three aspects of its study, which, from the point of view of curriculum building, seem pertinent for the future: why it is important; how it may be approached; what results may reasonably be anticipated.

WHY IT IS IMPORTANT

ANYONE who views the range and variety of the public services in any modern state can hardly fail to be impressed by the extent to which public opinion has sanctioned, and indeed imposed, the rapid expansion of governmental activity in every social and economic field. Whether in the

² See, for instance, T. F. Tout, *Chapters in the Administrative History of Mediaeval England*. Manchester: The Univ. Press, 6 vols. 1920-33.

democracies or the dictatorships—and often more rapidly in the dictatorship—the regulatory function of government has become the core of its *raison d'être*. Conceptions of the state of the mid-nineteenth century have given way before the practical necessity for the social and economic integration of present society. Civil rights, the separation of powers, constitutional organization are today remote from the average citizen's interests and needs; he is, rather, concerned with the activities and powers of administrative officials and agencies as they affect his business or employment. Some comprehension of why and how this evolution has taken place, of what principles of law and techniques of procedure apply to the regulation of his personal and social and economic activities, has become, therefore, an essential part of the equipment of the citizen.

THERE is a second closely related reason for the importance of public administration in the school curriculum. Most of our high-school graduates, whether they go to college or not, will not enter government service; but they will become citizens in a Great Society in which administration will become more, rather than less, significant. Much of the current distrust of, and even antipathy toward, governmental regulation arises from a lack of understanding of its purposes. Of course those "interests," of which James Madison spoke in No. X of "The Federalist," and which are today regulated by government in order to limit their complete independence to do as they wish with human beings and property, are more or less consistently opposed to all government control. Yet most of us are not the owners or administrators of the great corporate enterprises whose independence from regulation by government comprises a major problem in contemporary social and economic policy framing. Most American citizens belong instead to that great mass of the community whose prosperity and security depend upon an effective ad-

ministrative application of "the general welfare" as conceived and enacted into law through democratic processes. An intelligent appreciation of what our public servants are doing in the application of law to economic and social conditions may be, therefore, an effective factor in the survival of democracy itself. Were more of our future citizens brought to some realistic and critical understanding of the objectives and procedures of government, the increased effectiveness of legislative policy, as well as of its administrative application, might well turn out to be a not unimportant factor in insuring a progressive attainment of the general welfare. In any case, an intelligent appreciation of what public administration is about today can hardly fail to develop the citizen's responsiveness to his environment.

A THIRD reason why public administration deserves more adequate recognition in the curriculum is that it directly concerns the possible future careers of present pupils. With the expansion of government services not only are there more, but a greater variety of, government careers open to our high-school as well as our college graduates. This is increasingly true on all three levels of government in this country—national, state, and local. While no doubt the expansion of federal activities has received most attention in the press and public discussion, the evolution of "the service state" is not less significant on the other levels. Government service is very likely to become more attractive as opportunities to participate in a greater range of functions develop. It is therefore important that our public school system equip its students to evaluate the advantages of public service as a career. Its attractions even today in contrast with private employment are numerous and inviting. While of course many subjects on the vocational side of our present school curricula are avenues to the more routine posts in government service, is it not clearly a function of an adequate

educational program to stimulate interest and to equip students to enter the newer and more creative careers that government offers today?

HOW IT MAY BE APPROACHED

HOW may public administration be integrated into our present curricula, if these values are to be essayed? As Professor Dawson has pointed out, the textbooks today offer little or no guidance toward an objective study of administrative processes. This may not, however, be an altogether unmitigated liability. Is it not possible that a truer sense of realism about the whole field can be achieved through first hand contact than through the distilled and often attenuated objectivity of a text?

Can not the problems of public administration, as an element in the social-science curriculum, be approached through the project method? No textbook analysis can be so stimulating as an actual study of government in operation; and the facilities today for such an approach are legion. The prospective citizen, and his family, are most intimately in touch with government on the local level. Almost every day a student going to or from school sees one or more evidences of the functions and activities of local government. Suppose a manhole cover is up in the street. What does one see below? At least water and sewage pipes, perhaps also telephone and power cables and gas mains. In the city frequently also subways and other conduits, and perhaps steam lines. Where do these physical aspects of living in communities come from and go to? To whom do the various utilities belong; which are publicly and which privately owned? What sources of power and other physical services are there, and how do they function? These and many other questions are alive with interest and with the potentialities of objective and informing analysis. On the street surface too there are many indications of municipal activity. Is there anyone who does not thrill at the efficiency of the fire depart-

ment, or would not be interested to understand the intricacies of modern police radio systems, detective bureaus and training?

There are other and more far reaching aspects of local government susceptible of project analysis. Nearly all of the social services that government renders flow in one way or another through municipal channels. Today these touch the lives of the vast number of families in our Great Society. Why not trace them to their source, just as in the case of water supply and sewage disposal systems, to discover the sources of revenue, the techniques of administration of the human elements involved, and the problems behind the social services? Take milk inspection as a single example. Would it not be an exciting adventure to trace the milkshed of any of our great cities and even the smaller ones, and explore the health safeguards that modern science has brought to the maintenance of standards in milk production and distribution?

At the state level too there are many opportunities for similar exploration. Communities near a state capital can utilize directly the operations of government there. The state universities have a wide range of extension services concerned with government in its manifold social and economic activities, and the various state administrative services have many local areas of functional activity, with personnel in charge frequently capable of making the service visible to the imagination of the people. Our very failure to explore these resources tends often to make us less conscious than we might be of the many activities of first rate educational value to the social-science curriculum.

Finally there is the national level. Some schools have class trips to Washington. It is difficult to take several hundred students there and do more than get a surface impression, from its exterior aspects, of the workings of government. Yet even out of these some imaginative results can be

achieved. How many of these students might come back with a keener awareness of a great capital's significance to a nation, were they given some inkling of the evolution of the physical city itself? Might it not be possible, for instance, to trace back that evolution to Washington's conception of a national capital, to his asking a young French engineer, L'Enfant, who had attracted his notice during the Revolutionary War, to draw a plan; to how that plan is related to and contrasted with the great French tradition of the eighteenth century; to the modifications of the plan in the growth of the city; and to how in the twentieth century we are at last re-creating the magnificent concept of a great government center along the impressive axis from the Capitol to Arlington? There are many other creatively imaginative aspects of the government's activity which may be seen externally. The Patent Office, the Bureau of Standards, the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, the Smithsonian Institution can be visited. Here and elsewhere some of the many services that our national government provides can be seen "at the source," in the actual process of being operated. The spectrum of these activities is very likely to be more vividly illuminated by a little observation than by much reading.

Moreover there are many public officials in Congress and in the departments who are approachable and who can help to personalize a somewhat remote but not less interesting and important "government." The larger the group the more formal the attitudes of officials will probably be; but once met face to face—and there are many of our ablest public servants who conceive this as a part of their function—the personal factor in effective government will be more critically and alertly appreciated. Perhaps the clichés of the press will be less impressive. What is true in Washington is not less true (even if selection may need sometimes to be more clear-sighted) of our state and city governments. These brief suggestions of ways of approaching government, local,

state, and national, through the actuality of its operation are only indicative of what is possible. Local opportunities will vary, but there is hardly any community so remote as to be out of touch with these actualities.

ALL this is of course only a beginning. Behind the services and activities of government are government officials responsible for policy framing and execution. They determine in the last analysis how effective the services of government will be. Behind them, also, lie structural differences that do, as Professor Dawson has pointed out, make a difference in the way in which government officials can function. Of course interference from local political machines may sometimes intervene to prevent objective analysis of the structure of local government. This is not, however, always true, nor is it always prohibitive. There are many examples of effective and intelligent study by high-school students of the structure of local government.³ Whether or not such study bears immediate fruit in reform, for instance, like the introduction of the city manager plan in local government, will it not equip our future citizens to understand more intelligently the needs and the possibilities in improving administrative techniques?

Nothing has been said here of government documents, but it is obvious that there is much material from local, state, and national government sources that is prime classroom material. So much of this material is available free, especially for educational use, that it may become almost a running textbook in itself. Take a single example of the kind of material which can

³ See material prepared for high-school pupils under the direction of L. J. O'Rourke by the Civics Research Institute, 3506 Patterson Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., and discussed briefly in *Public Management*, August, 1934; for a description of such a course on the college level in the University of Toledo (Ohio) see "Effective Citizenship Training" by O. G. Jones in *National Municipal Review*, May, 1936; see also *Public Management*, August, 1937, for high-school "Apprentices" in a city hall.

be utilized effectively—annual municipal reports. Would it not be interesting to students to see how much can be made of the reports of their own communities toward an understanding of their own local government, and how the reports might be improved from the point of view of citizen appreciation of municipal activities.⁴

SUBJECTS of school study other than social science also lend themselves to appreciation of what government does and how to enter government service. There are the vocational courses that lead directly toward clerical and minor administrative positions. Would it not be feasible to make the student more aware of the opportunities for government service in this field through these courses? With the rapidly increasing range of governmental services not only is the number of positions increasing but the opportunities for promotion into responsible administrative positions are expanding. There are many other subjects in our present curricula, especially in the physical and biological sciences, in which what the government is doing is increasingly significant. Might not a realization at the high-school level of the range of governmental services open up vistas to some students which might encourage them to further training in order to acquire the necessary competence? No one, for instance, whether layman or expert, who peruses the *United States Department of Agriculture Yearbook* for 1936 can fail to be impressed by the significance of the government's contribution to all aspects of the biological sciences. It is indeed a romantic story easily susceptible of dramatization in the classroom. Indeed there is hardly a sub-

ject in our schools today that will not be enriched by including the results of one or another aspect of public administration.

WHAT RESULTS MAY BE ANTICIPATED

THE traditional approach to government, both in school and college, has been through a study of its larger and more abstract aspects. Constitutions, rights, legislatures, executives, courts have bulked large in content and emphasis; but this approach in the long run may well give the student, the prospective citizen, a somewhat unrealistic comprehension of what government is doing and why. Observation and analysis of the functions and services of government, of government in action, emphasize the reason for existence of the other branches and the actual impact of activity on rights. What result may be anticipated from such an approach? First of all perhaps a growing sense of the significance of government in contemporary society, a realization of the essential nature of government as a regulatory agency for balancing rights and insuring their observance by all. Since "all" includes great corporations and powerful private associations as well as individual citizens, this regulatory function of government is highly relevant to the prosperity and security of every citizen.

A second by-product may also be the development of a more intelligent group of potential public servants. If we continue to recruit for government service from the high-school level, as we shall, there is an advantage from the point of view of public interest in obtaining better equipped candidates, on the one hand, and, on the other, of equipping these candidates with a higher competence and a greater potential capacity for promotion. Certainly the kind of awareness which this type of approach to government ought to develop will make for a more effective government service and more efficient public servants.

Finally, as our society becomes more integrated, problems of public administration will become not only more important

⁴P. Bradley, *Making Municipal Reports Readable*. Trenton: New Jersey Taxpayers Assoc., 1936. Several current municipal reports, examples of effective reporting, may be had on request, for instance, of Trenton, New Jersey, and Berkeley, California. Equally valuable materials for use in economics or sociology courses is available in government documents. The practical implications of government regulation of many activities in these fields are illuminated by reference to its actual operative aspects illustrated in public reports.

but more experimental. The whole concept of planning, physical, social, and economic, is today emerging as a major factor in the future not only of this but of every country. It has already been noted that much of the obstruction which effective government administration of business enterprise today meets might be diluted by a more intelligent understanding of its problems. But such a concept as planning, on any of the levels here noted, involves profound changes in contemporary organization and in points of view and attitudes. The flexibility of mind essential to effective planning of our future economic, social, and physical resources would be cultivated by the comprehension that such an approach to government ought to give. If we are to have a Great Society, will it be achieved except by educating citizens capable of conceiving it and of operating it? Can we hope to have that kind of citizen unless we equip him with the tools for understanding, which are best sharpened by first hand contact with the problems and the potentialities of government geared to the objective of the general welfare?

WHAT has been said applies to the integration of the study of public administration in our contemporary school curricula; but is it not obvious that there is an equal, perhaps an even greater, need to develop an understanding and appreciation of its range and potentialities among teachers themselves during their own training? It would be an interesting inquiry to examine the type and scope of contemporary training in government and its teaching in our teachers' colleges. A cursory examination of a number of courses of instruction in these colleges indicates not only that public administration is almost entirely absent but that training in the

teaching of government is not as widespread as it might well be. As governmental functions become more significant in our national life, and administration of social and economic questions increasingly central to government for the general welfare, can we afford to neglect a more adequate basis of training for our high-school teachers? Recent statistics indicate that only about one-third of our total population has the benefit of a high-school education. Perhaps it will be necessary in the future to include awareness and understanding of public administration in the lower grades, if we are to have a truly informed electorate. Certainly, it is not too much to expect that a school curriculum, designed to equip its abler graduates for citizenship, should include the materials for an adequate comprehension of the present and future significance of public administration. Can this be achieved unless the teachers of our future citizens are themselves more thoroughly educated, not only in the problems which must be administered but in the basic principles and practices by which that administration can be made effective?⁵

⁵ Beside the biographies and autobiographies of some great administrators, for instance Lord Haldane and Secretary of War Garrison, see the report of the President's Committee on Administrative Management. Washington: National Emergency Council, 1937; *Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935, esp. *Better Government Personnel* available in 25 cent edition from Institute of Public Administration, 302 East 35th Street, New York City; M. E. Dimock, J. M. Gaus, and L. D. White, *Frontiers of Public Administration*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1936; M. E. Dimock, *Modern Politics and Administration*. New York: American Book, 1937; L. Gulick, ed., "Improved Personnel in Government Service," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, January, 1937; E. P. Herring, *Public Administration and the Public Interest*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936; L. D. White, *Trends in Public Administration*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933.

Teachers, Texts, and Current Problems

RICHARD PILANT

SINCE the whole welfare of a self-governing democracy depends upon the continuing existence of an informed and interested electorate, its school system is a failure unless it trains students of today to become intelligent voters of tomorrow. In recognition of this fact our high schools have instituted courses in citizenship and in current problems. Although these courses appear under varying titles, they have as their common aim the creation of an interest in public affairs. For the purposes of good citizenship it is not enough that the student become informed concerning the problems of the past, or of the particular year in which he happens to be studying. He must be stimulated and equipped to maintain an enduring and effectual interest in public affairs. This is the purpose of courses in citizenship and current problems. What is the practice? In practice neither teachers nor textbooks are adapted to fulfil the purposes of these courses.

In spite of necessary and unnecessary limitations on textbooks and on the range of the teacher's ability and interest, some way must be found to teach current problems effectively in high school. A graduate student of political science at Washington University in St Louis, formerly a teacher of social studies at Granby, Missouri, has some ideas concerning ways for doing this.

THE TEACHER

AS for the teachers, they are either unfitted by lack of training or talent; or they are so overloaded, underpaid, over-censored, and deprived of necessary teaching aids and equipment that their talent and training have little opportunity for operation. They do not find time to read many current periodicals, books, or pamphlets of any nature—professional, general, or recreational. They do not find time to listen to many excellent radio programs, to see the best moving pictures, to attend public lectures or professional conventions. If they have the time, they can not find the cash or the intellectual freedom; or they must be spending all extra time and cash taking correspondence courses, extension courses, summer courses, trying to add to credit totals regardless of whether the courses are actually as professionally valuable as would be an intelligent program of reading, listening, travel, talk, and active participation in organizations.

In general our training schools and colleges are hardly prepared to make teachers less apathetic toward community, state, national, and international happenings. History courses naturally stress the past; offerings in government, economics, and sociology are by no means always concerned with the immediate present. The student's time is spent in mastering several unrelated courses, leaving little time for free reading and giving no incentive to become generally interested in the world of today. Departmental requirements are ordinarily

geared to produce narrow specialists in narrowing specialities, whereas the teaching of current problems calls for teachers who have a broad background of general reading in history, psychology, philosophy, economics, geography, politics, literature, sociology, and popularized science. It calls for teachers who not only know much, but who are also able to communicate much, ready to apply their knowledge. It calls for teachers who not only learned much in the past, but who are also learning more every day of every week of every year. Current problems is not a field in which a teacher can be so excellently prepared in the universities that he can teach for years without constant and systematic effort to increase his knowledge—not, of course, to imply that there is any field in which a teacher can be so prepared.

Suppose, however, that a teacher does possess all these desirable qualifications. What can he do toward fulfilling the purpose of courses in current problems in the face of prevailing large classes, poverty of such essential instructional materials as newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, and books, and of prevailing systems of grading numerically and minutely, of maintaining rigid subject-field divisions, rigid and specific schedules of items to be taught, always on a timeclock basis and sometimes even from required textbooks?

To all these realities add the possibility of censorship, if controversial issues are introduced. A teacher may conclude that he is perfectly free to teach anything he wants only so long as he does not interest his students enough to lead them to quote him outside of class, so long as his teaching has no perceptible effect on ways of thinking or acting.

THE TEXT

WHAT of textbooks? A good textbook is supposed to be a substitute for a poor teacher. Yet, if possible, textbooks in contemporary problems are more repressed and out-of-date than teachers.

Any treatment published before 1930 is hopeless; any text published before NRA and AAA is hardly useful; and any text published before the NRA and AAA decisions is of doubtful value. It may well be that any book published before the impending international stabilization of currencies and moderation of world trade obstacles or the next election will be outmoded in a few weeks. That is not to mention the rapid outmoding of any treatment of the international situation. The question of obsolescence of current-problem texts is not a mere matter of the presence or absence of a few specific dates or data. It is a matter of the total focus of the book, the internal emphases, the relation between the page and the world scene. A current-problems text published before the "Great Panic" is not to be modernized simply by adding a chapter on the "World Depression" and its effects; or a textbook published before our last presidential election is not to be brought up-to-date simply by stating that Franklin Delano Roosevelt was elected. The rapidity with which nationwide and worldwide upsets have been taking place has left academic authorities on public questions slow to speak, in textbooks at least.

There are not enough generally accepted assumptions left in the field of current affairs for the conservative, controversy-shunning textbook writer to operate authoritatively. Moreover, it is impossible to avoid the charge that textbooks have been intentionally and intensively devitalized by controversy-shunning textbook writers under the control of sales-seeking publishers. The reality of this situation is not impaired by the tact and subtlety with which it is often enshrouded. Naturally the poor author is anxious to make all he can out of the sale of his book. Why walk on any good customer's toes? Naturally the writer wants some firm to publish his book after he has gone to all the trouble of writing it. Of course the writer must understand that publishers can not afford to print

textbooks for which there is no probability of wide adoption. The writer must seek not only publication but an extensive and friendly market. In the face of this situation, overtly or covertly, before submission or after submission, sometimes even after publication, each tries to outdo the other in diluting strong statements and soft-pedaling moot issues. Any exceptions merely prove the rule. Between the two profit seekers, scholarly masterpieces of restraint and information may emerge, but in a devitalized condition that leaves most students coldly indifferent.

THIS same desire to please every possible buyer in every section leads the author to make other mistakes. He tries to discuss all problems in one book, and each problem in full. He tries to write a comprehensive and a compact book. He tries to produce a book with a national or international focus and a sectional centering to appeal to all regions. He tries to emphasize local problems on a national scale and national problems on a local scale. He tries to write a readable book for high-school students and a stimulating book for his learned associates and former teachers. To bring the subject within space limits, he over-simplifies events. In order to draw each event in proportion against a national or an international background he reduces present events into insignificance, making the all-important present look like a pale and minute shadow of the vast past and the immediate victim of an endless and overwhelming future. With long range trends, universal urges, and thundering statistics he reduces the controversial issues of the present, which should occupy the student's attention, to ridiculous minutiae of little or no possible interest to any person of real intelligence. In scrupulous impartiality, or chronic indecision, he reduces controversial issues to inconclusive incoherence; or with all-seeing wisdom he makes dissent from his viewpoints seem incredibly dumb. The ease with which the expert author ar-

rives at his conclusions kills any inclination on the part of the student to draw his own conclusions; or the neatness of the argument leaves the student bewildered and disgusted. In his painstaking organization into units and assignments with questions, study helps, bibliographies, lexicons, notes to the teacher, notes to the student, workbooks, study outlines, and standardized tests he robs the course of all animation and spontaneity for both the teacher and the student.

It should not be thought that there is no place for informative books with all their teaching aids in current-problems classes, but the question is as to how they are to be used. Are they to be used as textbooks, from which daily assignments are made and mastered? Or are they to be used as reference books, sources of information for students whose interests have already been aroused in the subject by the use of more vivid and timely materials, such as newspapers, magazines, lectures, radio features, moving pictures, exhibitions, excursions, and conversations. It is a question of which goes first, the cart or the horse.

A student with a good memory may be able to memorize the conclusions, which are not so important from the learners' point of view as how those conclusions were reached. Yet who among our students can be expected to master the supporting evidence? Somewhere in the process of education the technique for later mastery of supporting evidence must be learned. It is unimportant what judgments students make of current events in the years when they wield neither the power of action nor that of public opinion. It is of major importance how they are trained to arrive at the judgments on which they will be acting twenty years from now. Yet it is this author's belief that the responsibility for that training does not lie wholly or in major part on the teacher of current events, although they certainly should be considered critically, and their sources critically examined.

THE TASK

AT the moment the real job of a current-events course is to interest and not to indoctrinate, to encourage in the search for relevant information for the formation of intelligent attitudes on public problems and not to subjugate under threat of examination and failure to master the class assignments, and above all to lay foundations for permanent interest. If the textbooks in current problems are out-of-date at the time of their publication, what will they be by the time they have been generally adopted by the schools? What will they be by the time they have been generally discarded by our schools? It may be protested that this is narrowing the meaning of the term "current events" too much. Yet if one is to interest the general run of high-school students in current events with a maximum of ease and a minimum of compulsion, he will do so not only by discussing the events of the last ten or twenty years, but, more importantly, by beginning with the things that happened yesterday or last night or that have just been announced over the radio. At least he will have to introduce the subject from that range and initiate the interest from that level. How far beyond that level he carries his students depends largely upon his ability as a teacher. The more of the subject he can cover from discussions in the daily newspapers, weekly papers and magazines, monthly magazines, current lectures, radio features, current pictures, exhibitions, excursions, and investigations the quicker and the more deeply he will interest students in their community, their state, and their country.

No assemblage of fact can profit students much, for the facts they will need most, in future crises, have not yet come into existence. We must content ourselves with teaching them where to find the facts. Most of us and most of our schools can teach that; but, before we can teach even that, we must make students want to know.

A GOOD teacher could keep a student interested throughout life but society has not yet reached the point of furnishing each of us with a fulltime, lifetime teacher. Good books might keep him interested, if we could be certain of keeping him in their company. Good magazines would help. Good moving pictures would be of aid. Good radio programs would not come in amiss. Membership in certain civic organizations would be of great value. Yet more than all of these, the habit of reading a good newspaper, carefully and thoughtfully, is most likely to keep boys and girls, men and women, perpetually interested in the world. The daily press represents the great common denominator of the interests, abilities, ambitions, and achievements of all people, of all peoples. It is the common source of information in this country and the indispensable basis for social interest and reform. The habit of newspaper reading once contracted tends toward self-perpetuation, because it costs little in time or money, is suited to the range of interests and abilities of persons of all kinds, is readily available everywhere in our country, and is fitted to lead any individual in the pursuit of knowledge on any subjects.

If we can once get the student in the habit of reading a daily newspaper daily of his own free will, we accomplish more for him than we could have in any other way normally available to us as teachers. Much greater than the specific material carried by the daily press in importance is the fact that the daily press serves as an ever-ready guide and an all-inclusive index to all other educational agencies. It carries the daily radio programs, announcements of the theatres, reviews of books, reports of lectures and speeches, news of professional organizations, churches, political parties, avocational and vocational groups, national and international movements, concerts, festivals, celebrations, births, lives, deaths. In short, whatever it is that interests you or anybody else will be mentioned sooner or later, with varying frequency,

with varying emphasis by the daily press. Whatever your interest or ambition, a reading of the daily press will point to you means of satisfying that ambition, means of meeting others interested in similar or identical projects, means of publicizing your ambitions or achievements.

As for the misinformation, sensationalism, sentimentality, or bias, of which newspapers are undoubtedly guilty, that does not alter the social necessity of reading the papers. Public opinion, the strongest force in a democracy, is, unfortunately, as easily molded by misinformation as by information. Therefore, it is as necessary to know the kind and quantity of lies and prejudices distributed to, and absorbed by, the public as it is to know the facts with which to combat those same and twisted truths.

If we are to give the student the habit of reading a daily newspaper daily, what newspaper shall we urge him to read? We should not compromise by using any papers specially prepared for the schools, written down to the student, written up to the stars of idealism, and organized for definite mastery of facts. It is very probable that most of our students will read those papers most widely read in their own home community, whether those are the best papers in the world or not. That is all very well. He should read the district paper wherever he moves, changing papers with districts, for the district paper is the one most likely to carry the most news in which he ought to be interested. Local problems affect most of us directly and continuously. Certainly they are the problems which most of us can most directly and continuously affect.

Of course, the fact that the district paper is read does not mean that other papers of wider interests should not be read; but we ought not expect to elevate our students' reading tastes too rapidly or too radically. Those who are in the habit of reading no newspaper must very tactfully be led to read

any newspaper. We must expect them to be interested in the features which we consider most trivial or vicious; but it is necessary that they first read any part of a newspaper so that they may later stand a chance of becoming interested in reading the most valuable and solid sections in the paper. It is well to let them know the virtues of other papers and the shortcomings of the district paper. It seems desirable to stress the more important news, the less scandalous, and the least frivolous, but not so exclusively as to destroy their rising interest.

In order to get students into the habit of reading a daily newspaper daily it is desirable, at first anyway, to have each student subscribe to a daily paper in his own name, receive it himself, and bring it to class with him to read during class time. It is very easy for the beginner to get the habit of reading the newspaper daily, if he thus reads it each day with the rest of the class. When the teacher thinks the habit is well enough established, he can use the class time for discussion, for reports, and he can resort to topic files, scrapbooks, bulletin-board exhibits, and background assignments in reference books (our former textbooks, although possibly altered to reach a larger, less pedantic group). The newspaper can be used to advantage not only in arousing initial interest and maintaining continuing impetus in the study of current events as a separate subject but also in any school subjects from the third grade through high school, in varying degrees and manners. There is no quarrel between this plan for using the daily newspaper to initiate student interest in current problems and any other plan of education designed for fitting students to live in the modern world. It is all a question of how best to induce the average student to learn those things which educators consider essential, and how best to lay foundations for the structure that must be built in all the years to come.

Why Do Children Dislike History?

CHARLES A. HARPER

AN outstanding contradiction seems to exist in connection with the subject of history in our elementary schools. The study seems to be disliked for reasons which are not only not implied in the nature of the subject matter itself, but which would seem to be the very last objections to be expected from the true nature of history. One must admit that the reasons children give for disliking history are very well known by most teachers and are probably due to the heavy part the textbook plays in teaching. However the idea I wish to emphasize is that, although the reasons children dislike the study of history are very definitely related to the way it is being taught, they have decidedly a reverse relation to the nature of history and also to the way that better teachers are handling the subject.

In 1933 and 1934 I made a study to learn whether about fifteen hundred pupils in the seventh and eighth grades liked or disliked history work, and, if they disliked it, what were their reasons. To avoid suggest-

On the basis of a questionnaire given to fifteen hundred seventh- and eighth-graders the author, associate professor of social science at Illinois State Normal University at Normal, arraigns some faults in teaching history and suggests some remedies for the situation in elementary schools. His suggestions are also applicable to high schools, colleges, and universities.

ing that they dislike history, they were merely asked to list in order the subjects they liked and those they disliked. Of those questioned, 72 per cent placed history among their disliked subjects. Of this 72 per cent, 47 per cent listed history first on their disliked list. The evidence at least proved that in a certain sampling of seventh and eighth grades in the Middle West history was decidedly and positively disliked.

Of more significance, it seems to me, were the answers to some further questions concerning their objections to history. Four objections caught over 65 per cent of those giving their reasons. In order of frequency they were: too much memorization, lack of continuity in the material, dull and uninteresting subject matter, and unimportance or uselessness.

Now none of those charges can properly be brought against the subject matter or the nature of history itself. Any such indictment must be placed upon history teaching—that is, the method of presentation.

AN analysis of these objections shows that the first two are more or less the same thing and that neither is related to the true nature of history. If material is presented in a disconnected manner, it is obviously a matter of mere abstract memorization; and, conversely, if the teacher puts great emphasis upon mere factual memorization, then very little continuity can be developed in the assignment. But let us glance at the subject of history just

a moment to see whether this situation is at all necessary. In the first place we hear a great deal about continuity being one of the basic aspects of history—in other words continuity is one of its selling points. History is but a chain of relations and connections. Its emphasis has always been upon development of ideas, practices, and institutions. Yet these children tell us that "We learn one thing today and something else tomorrow. We have to keep so many things in our minds, and we move so rapidly that we can not remember anything. We may get a lesson today, but tomorrow we shall have a different array of facts about something entirely different; and it seems to be an almost impossible strain on our memory to hold it all until the final examination." The truth is that the subject must be taught so that the child has no more difficulty in recalling the essential material than he does in recalling the outstanding events of his own past. If we ask the child what he did last Fourth of July, he will not engage in an act of abstract memorization. He will put related things together to aid recall and, on the whole, engage in a very satisfactory experience of reconstructing the past. Memory of that kind is usually quite a pleasant thing. So history, being the memory of the race, ought to give certain satisfactions in this kind of recall. This of course is very different from memorizing a list of dates and events in which the figures are repeated until they become fixed in the mind. Why is it that, among the mistakes made by junior high-school students in giving dates and events, the frequency of those in which the correct figures are given but given in the wrong order is very high? The answer is clear. It is because they have memorized figures and have not developed any time sense.

The unit method has helped us a great deal in the matter of tying things together. It has made us think continuously in terms of wholes rather than isolated parts. Perhaps the discussion technique will do even more to eliminate this bugaboo of memori-

zation of facts. As the child comes to see that facts are to be used merely as evidence, he will perhaps develop a great deal more respect for them and a great deal less fear of them. We must, however, as teachers do a great deal more than pay lip service to this wonderful thing called continuity. We must be constantly on the alert for relationships and connections. We must see to it that sequences are built up and that developments occupy the important place in our procedures.

CONCERNING the third reason for disliking history—its alleged lack of interest—we have perhaps the greatest tragedy in the whole teaching situation. We are aware of the fact that the most interesting things to all human beings are other human beings. The main object of conversation among our pupils is and will continue to be other pupils. The subject of most intrinsic interest ought to be the study that deals with great personalities and with persons at interesting crises in their own lives. Making the past real necessarily and inevitably makes an interesting story of human beings for human beings. Failure to make the past real means a failure to make the past meaningful, and the failure to make the past meaningful simply means that we are not teaching history. It is true that there are many subject-matter fields which are essential fields of human knowledge but are not intrinsically interesting to boys and girls; and in those the problem of motivation is serious. Yet history is not one of those subjects. The selective process in history has been in terms of human interest. Only those things intensely interesting to society made enough impression on the social consciousness to be remembered and recorded in a historic account. Any way we look at the situation, in elementary and secondary schools, at least, if what we teach about the past is not interesting, it is not history; and, if our teaching does not arouse the interest of our pupils, we are not teaching them history.

IN the fourth criticism—that the history work is unimportant or useless—we find a closely related situation. The material in history should be studied almost exclusively for the purpose of orienting ourselves to our political, economic, and social environment. One way, and a vital way, of knowing what things are all about is by seeing how they became what they are. We must initiate the children as quickly and painlessly as possible into a complex social environment. Our approach to this initiation is the explanation of that environment in terms of its development. Time is so short, and there is so much that is of unquestionable importance in the field of history, that it seems that we ought to be able to present material of undeniable importance and that we ought also to be able to make that importance clear even in elementary schools.

TO remedy the situation I suggest four related lines of effort to improve teaching history on both the elementary and the secondary levels—and also in some colleges and in universities, although I am not discussing that point at this moment. In the first place teachers ought to think of objectives in terms of the development of understandings, skills, and attitudes. If the children are taught to investigate, evaluate, criticize, and think, they can be kept so busy doing these things that they do not have time to worry about overloading their minds with factual data. By the emphasis on the use of facts rather than upon the facts themselves most of the complaint about overburdened memories can be eliminated. In the second place make the continuity of history really mean something. Stress those important sequences and relationships, about which we talk so much whenever we discuss the nature of the subject. Trace the development of in-

stitutions and ideas. Use the chart, the graph, the time line, and the tabulation in stressing connections. Make the most important feature of the unit method become this idea of continuity in relationships. In the third place, make the past real, avoid the survey skeleton, and, especially, avoid mere listing of names and facts. Make the pupil conscious that he is studying about human beings. Compare and contrast patterns of social and economic life. Do not neglect the cultural achievements of the past, and teach for appreciation. That is a field for the use of all kinds of visual aids. It is also the place for dramatization and any other means of cultivating the imagination in order that the child may project himself into the living atmosphere of the past. Remember that making the past real is not an objective of history teaching, but it is an essential characteristic of any history teaching whatsoever. We are not teaching history for the purpose of making the past real, we are making the past real for the purpose of teaching history. My last suggestion here is to remember that the entire purpose of history teaching is to explain the present; and this must be made clear to the child. He must see that historical material is important only as it helps us to understand ourselves. The children must be taught that people are indefinitely variable in their ideas, ideals, customs, traditions, institutions, and practices, and that the pattern of these things within a given social group depends very largely upon the past of that group. The child must become conscious of the way people do things in society and must develop a desire to learn why his own social group thinks, feels, or acts as it does. If we create in children a distinct craving to understand the world by investigation of their own social heritage, we need not fear that they will find history unimportant.

In Defense of Planning

ETHEL MABIE FALK

THE first rush of the activity movement sent teachers into a revolt against courses of study or any adult-planned organization of subject matter and placed all the responsibility for the formality of instruction upon the textbooks or outlines that were being used. It was thought that the elimination of these would solve the problem. Yet today discriminating educators are realizing that it takes more than the elimination of mandatory courses of study and textbooks to make teaching dynamic and worth while. Many other factors contribute to the vitality of instruction, such as the rich background and fair-mindedness of the teacher, the social significance of the problems undertaken for study, and the amount and kind of material available for children's study—books, magazines, pictures, films, even statistical data, opportunities for observation and investigation.

Certain rather obvious and serious faults have become apparent in the unplanned activity program. Some of these faults are: the frequent duplication of activities on three or four successive grade levels, which

has resulted in boredom as well as appalling limitation of knowledge and interest in environment; the selection of problems that can not be studied adequately enough for even the children's satisfaction, because they involve concepts beyond their understanding, and that thus lead to superficial and often obviously incorrect conclusions; and the choice of units of study for which there is no reading material on the child's level, no opportunity for independent learning, and therefore complete dependence on the teacher's treasure house of knowledge—a situation often more hazardous than that in which the textbook alone is the source. Moreover the substitution of a single pupil's choice of an activity for the teacher-selected one gives an opportunity for many unfortunate personality characteristics—for the aggressive child to dominate the classroom, for children to bluff as they are called upon to make snap judgments on questions for which they have no background, and for teachers and pupils alike to seek to study the unique rather than the real and valuable aspects of their environment.

Such a situation has led teachers toward co-operative efforts in curriculum building. Recognizing that a public school system is responsible for giving children opportunity for growth as well as freedom, the elementary teachers of Madison, Wisconsin, have pooled their experiences in the development of a course of study in the social studies. The course is suggestive only, but the general plan is followed without any feeling of inhibition by individual teach-

Is it possible to reconcile progressive classroom practice with a carefully planned curriculum for the elementary grades? The former supervisor of curriculum in the Madison, Wisconsin, public schools describes the solution arrived at co-operatively by teachers in Madison.

knowledge for clear understanding; and (5) to give concepts that will be basic to a sound, practical program of citizenship training.

IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES

FOR the kindergarten and for grade one the child's immediate home surroundings provide the content of his study. In grade two those parts of the community which are within the neighborhood and which contribute to his daily needs are studied. A study of the school with all its contribution to his welfare begins the same year. In order to give the child an understanding of his varied needs and the many people who serve those needs, several types of studies are included, for example, the grocery, bakery, and dairy as sources of his food, the post office as a service agency, the fire department as a protective agency, and the parks as recreation opportunity. Only the parts of the community that the class can actually visit and learn about directly are studied in the second grade. In grade three more distant sources of the child's needs are studied. His food supply is traced through the local retail stores, which he studied in the second grade, to the truck and dairy farm and to other kinds of farms farther away. Clothing and housing needs are also studied in grade three in the units on cotton, wool, silk, light, and trees.

The studies of sharply contrasting geographic regions in grade four make the child conscious that people in all places in the world have needs similar to his own and meet their problems differently because of different physical conditions in the lands in which they live. Basic geographic concepts regarding climate are developed. Each region studied has been selected for the definite geographic understandings that can be gained from its study. Similarities and relationships as well as differences between our own country and the other region are always emphasized. Through grade four only present time is studied because of the evidence that understandings of past time

were often vague or incorrect if presented to immature children.

In grade five regional study of the geography of the United States is combined with the historical study of important factors in modern life. The historical study is always approached from present time as a starting point. In grade six Europe provides the geographic study while the historical units deal with the older factors in our civilization. An explanation of the departure from the usual chronological history study of grades five and six should be given. In determining units for grade five we have aimed to select significant aspects of the child's life that have their origin and development within the period of American history, thus providing a closer relationship with the regional geographic units. In grade six we have aimed to select aspects that have their origin and part of their development in the Old World. This makes possible a unified program consisting of a mosaic of history and geography units. The order of units has been chosen to allow the most effective use of geographic concepts in the other units. The study of a single phase of life and its historical development seemed less difficult for children of this level than a comprehensive study of all phases of a society several hundred years ago with no apparent relationship to the life of today's child. It also has the advantage of giving fresh interest to the junior high-school history study with its chronological organization.

TEACHING PRINCIPLES

TEACHING principles in the use of the unit outlines are defined in the course of study outlines but can only be suggested here briefly. I have spoken of the teachers' liberty of choice of the units and of the effort to maintain flexibility by each teacher's development of experimental units. The length of time for each unit will vary with its value for the particular class. The use of as many as six units, preferably varied, is recommended because of the

rather temporary interest of elementary-school children, their inability to carry on a long, concentrated study of a subject, and their need of different experiences. The activities listed are very specific, not because they are to be carried out as indicated, but because they are more valuable and suggestive when definite. The understandings listed for each unit are large concepts, appreciation of which will grow slowly through concrete experiences. Units at succeeding grade levels contribute to the same large understandings. Study of them will help teachers to select what is to be included in the unit. Only those facts which are the stuff from which judgments are formed and relationships realized will be included. The variety and number of activities outlined for every unit will enable the teacher to select only those best for the development of her class. The habit of independent discovery of information and of the free use of the library should be developed as early as possible. The use of the museum, of civic buildings and of industries, or well informed persons willing to talk to children about their travels or their work, is of much value in keeping alive the child's normal intellectual curiosity. Slides, pictures, films, and radio programs make invaluable material on all units. The responsibility for adapting the unit to the different abilities within a class rests with the teacher. The breadth and flexibility of each unit allows for an organization of committees or of individual projects suited to each child's level. The bibliographies are varied so that suitable reading material can be supplied for children of different abilities.

STANDARDS

THE following questions, by which the units included in each outline were judged, serve as standards in the selection

of the experimental units which each teacher is urged to develop.

(1) Does the unit have reality for the children because it is understandable and interesting?

(2) Are the information and vocabulary within the pupil's capacity to acquire?

(3) Does the unit provide opportunity for a variety of activities and experiences?

(4) Is the unit meeting our aim of increasing the child's understanding of his environment and his relations with other people?

(5) Does the unit arouse interests and curiosities that extend beyond the social-studies period and the classroom?

(6) Does the unit appeal to pupils of different abilities and levels of intelligence?

(7) Is the reading material adequate? Is there available material in texts or in reading books so that all pupils can do some reading? Is there additional material in the library for pupils who can do more extensive reading? Is there some material that is easy enough for pupils who do not read as well as the average in the grade?

CONTINUED EXPERIMENTATION

SINCE the courses of study were completed in 1934 many experimental units have been developed by individual teachers. They have been reported in outline form and at the present time are being made available to other teachers. They include studies of the library for grade two, wheat in grade three, highways and motor travel for grade five, recreation through the ages and a study of the history of the theater in grade six. After other teachers have also used these units experimentally and subjected them to rating on the standards set up, supplementary sections will be added to the course of study outlines.

The Literature of Sociology 1935 and 1936

LOUIS WIRTH AND EDWARD A. SHILS

SURVEYING the literature of sociology at other times we have called attention to the difficulty of presenting the progress of that discipline in an orderly and precise manner which would avoid duplicating the portrayal of the contributions of other social-science disciplines. These difficulties are due in no small measure to the ambiguities in the definitions of the nature and scope of sociology, which is at one and the same time a special and a general social science, and which in addition shares with the other social sciences the peculiar lack of determinate scope arising out of the confusion between theory and practice, fact and opinion, description and prescription. Moreover no universally acceptable set of categories is available according to which the literature of sociology can be classified satisfactorily. Sociology, like the other social sciences, is preoccupied not merely with a set of continuing theoretical problems but a host of varying concrete problems reflecting the dominant issues of contemporary society. If at one time in the history of sociology the dominant interest reflecting itself in the literature is that of immigration and Americanization, at another time it may be race relations, poverty, crime, migration, personality, the family,

the local community, occupational grouping, social classes, or social planning. In general during the two years under review the most significant developments in sociology have taken place in the fields of population, social stratification, the sociology of knowledge and social planning. This article deliberately avoids any discussion of textbooks. Their lack of originality, the absence of an adequate theoretical framework, and the failure to fund the knowledge produced by research is so notorious in sociology that the refusal to take account of textbooks appears defensible, since it will not result in the omission of many important contributions to sociological knowledge.

Among the institutional developments in sociology during the two years, mention might be made of the completion of the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*,¹ the founding of two additional journals, the *American Sociological Review* and *Rural Sociology*, the cessation of the *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, and the tremendous expansion of the research publications of the government. A valuable index has been published by the *American Journal of Sociology* of the contents of its first forty volumes, which furnishes a representative bibliography of the sociological literature in the United States. *The American Journal of Sociology*, *Social Forces*, *Sociology and Social Research*, *Social Research*, and *Zeitschrift für Sozialforschung* have continued publication.

The authors of this review article are, respectively, professor of sociology and research associate at the University of Chicago. The article will be completed in the November issue.

¹ New York: Macmillan. 15 vols., 1930-1935.

GOVERNMENT RESEARCH

THE depression and the assumption of new functions by the government under the New Deal have greatly enlarged the scope of published governmental data of particular interest to sociologists. The creation of new agencies of government, among them the central statistical board, the resettlement administration, the federal emergency relief administration, the works progress administration, the federal housing administration, and the social security board, has not only provided new data corresponding to the new functions that these agencies have assumed but has led these agencies to go beyond the mere reporting of facts to the interpretation of facts and the formulation of policies. Moreover in a good many instances actual experiments of great social significance, and correspondingly of great sociological interest, have been undertaken by government. The occasional or periodic appraisal of these offers a body of literature of considerable scientific interest. It should be added furthermore that in some of the newer publications of the government, especially in the fields of unemployment, relief, natural resources, and housing, a new standard of excellence is being set, and a degree of readability is being achieved which puts these reports into a class by themselves as far as governmental publications are concerned.

Following the general report of December 1, 1934, of the national resources board, the national resources committee published in 1935 its volume on *National Planning: Regional Factors in National Planning and Development*. In this document there were brought together the viewpoints of the available experts in the United States on regionalism and on the relation between geographic, economic, social, and political areas. The report provided a scheme for the regrouping of governmental functions according to a more logical territorial set of units and suggested ways of integrating the administrative and geographic factors in

regional planning on a national scale. There followed in 1936 a series of reports on *Regional Planning*, among them those on the Pacific Northwest, the St. Louis region, and the New England region. In 1935 there was also published a series of volumes on various phases of land planning, including one important monograph on *Indian Land Tenure, Economic Status, and Population Trends. An Interim Report to the National Resources Committee by the Research Committee on Urbanism*² in 1936 for the first time in the history of the United States dealt with the significant rôle of cities in national life, analyzing the trend in reporting and urging the improvement in the statistical and informational services of government concerning cities.

In connection with the relief activities of the government, the division of social research of the federal emergency relief administration and the works progress administration have contributed a series of significant monographs, among which several should be mentioned particularly: *Six Rural Problem Areas*, by P. G. Beck and M. C. Forster, analyzed six areas with heavy relief loads in relation to their natural and social resources. While the study was primarily oriented toward the possibility of rehabilitating the families in these areas and sought to specify the conditions under which rehabilitation could take place, it was of greatest interest to the student for its careful analysis of the factors that have resulted in the depletion of resources in the areas and of the social characteristics of the families inhabiting them. A similar study was Thomas C. McCormick's *Comparative Study of Rural Relief and Non-Relief Households* in which relief and non-relief families were compared. It was found that those on relief had larger families, greater unemployment, and smaller incomes than the non-relief families. Differences in age, educational attainments, stability, family composition, occupation, and industry were

² All Washington: Government Printing Office.

found to be factors that might aid in explaining the differences in the welfare of the family. Another study, by John N. Webb, dealt with *The Transient Unemployed*,³ their number, the characteristics, and the problems incident to the migratory unemployed. Of particular interest to students of the city were two volumes by Gladys L. Palmer and Katherine D. Wood, *Urban Workers on Relief*,⁴ presenting the occupational characteristics of workers on relief in urban areas for 1934. These studies gave not merely the type of data that had never before been accessible to students of family and community life in the United States but made a beginning toward interpreting the phenomena of dependency and maladjustment on the basis of the characteristics of the population and the social situation in which they find themselves. "The General Development and Present Status of the FERA Research Program" was set forth by Howard B. Myers and a view of the "Prospects and Possibilities: The New Deal and the New Social Research" was offered by A. S. Stephan in the May, 1935, issue of *Social Forces*. The same issue presented a general picture of the "State and Local Statistical Studies Constructed as Work Relief Projects" by Frederick F. Stephan, and in the *American Sociological Review* of October, 1936, Howard B. Myers discussed the scope, problems, and accomplishments of the "Research with Relief Funds—Past, Present and Future."

In the field of housing two important bulletins have been issued by the housing division of the federal emergency administration of public works. The first of these, *Slums and Blighted Areas in the United States* by Edith Elmer Wood,⁵ summarized the problem of slum clearance and rehousing of the low income group and

presented a concise analysis of housing conditions in fifteen large cities, together with a less detailed analysis of the housing conditions as shown in the real property inventories of 1934 and a fragmentary picture of housing in the rest of the country. It pointed to the conclusion that, in view of the incomes and economic conditions now existing and very likely to prevail, it is impossible to meet the need through private enterprise. Examples were shown of the experience of other countries in dealing with this problem and of the beneficial results achieved through slum clearance and rehousing programs. An appendix gave a partial list of housing surveys in the United States. The second bulletin, *Urban Housing: Story of the PWA Housing Division*⁶ further analyzed the problem of housing in relation to living conditions, incomes and rents, the supply and demand of low rent dwellings, and the cost of slum maintenance. It outlined the function of the PWA housing division, its background, and the government's previous efforts to deal with the housing problem, and it set forth the present program. One appendix gave a brief picture of the development of the housing movement in Europe and the United States, another a summary of housing legislation, and a third of the projects of the housing division. This booklet, which was profusely illustrated, contained some essential information for the understanding of housing problems and prospects in American cities.

POPULATION

PROBABLY there is no field of sociological interest in which in recent years there has been more advance and to which there has been devoted more concentrated attention than the field of population. In part this interest is an outgrowth of the recognition that knowledge concerning population, its growth and composition, going back to the days of Malthus, has a

³ All Research Monographs. Washington, 1935, but imprint of last incorrect for first printed in 1936.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 1936.

⁵ Washington, 1935.

⁶ *Ibid.*, 1936.

basic significance for social studies. In part also this emphasis is a response to the primary need for population analysis in connection with problems of national planning and policy making. No doubt too the fact that in population studies it is possible to achieve relatively precise and quantitative knowledge concerning a phase of social life has made this field attractive to many students equipped with the statistical skills necessary for mastery of the problems. An important contribution to the knowledge of population in the United States has been made in the volume edited by Louis I. Dublin, "The American People: Studies in Population."⁷ The contributors to this volume have dealt with reproduction, mortality and morbidity, population composition and growth, the relation of population to resources, population problems, policies and research. The slowing down of the rate of reproduction in the leading civilized nations and the analysis of the factors responsible for this trend have come to constitute one of the major themes in population studies as reflected by the contributions in this volume. Similarly the studies in mortality, morbidity, and qualitative aspects of the population are being subjected to detailed analysis by refined techniques recently developed. Of special interest in connection with the formulation of national policies are the recent explorations of the distribution of population, of movement from region to region, as between city and country and as between areas of expanding and declining economic opportunity. With increasing accuracy in the available data and the perfection of the techniques of analysis there is every indication of important advances in the reliability of scientific prediction, which should be of inestimable value in formulating national policies.

In recent years there has been particularly great advance in the comparative

study of population processes. Thus for instance analysis of the factors arising out of socio-economic conditions of life as they affect fertility of different groups has led to more detailed knowledge concerning changes in different parts of the population.⁸ Human longevity and the factors that influence it was presented both from a historical point of view and from a contemporary comparative point of view by Louis I. Dublin and Alfred J. Lotka in their *Length of Life: A Study of the Life Table*,⁹ which included also an important contribution to the clarification of such important concepts as "true rate of natural increase" and "stabilized population," and indicated how life tables might fruitfully be applied to population problems.

A number of more comprehensive studies have appeared providing further knowledge of world population in its various aspects. Among these one of the most useful was the little volume by Robert R. Kuczynski, *Population Movements*,¹⁰ which surveyed the present sources of our knowledge of population and pointed out the serious shortcomings. This volume also analyzed the peopling of the United States with whites and Negroes, the factors underlying the reduction of mortality and fertility, the balance of births and deaths, and the prospects for increasing reproduction and for affecting population movements through public opinion. Since the great growth of European population after the eighteenth century has been due to reduction of mortality which is rapidly approaching a limit, Kuczynski pointed out that future population growth will depend on increased fertility, of which only Russia gives marked evidence. One of the most valuable parts of the book is an appendix

⁷ See for instance F. W. Notestein and C. W. Kiser, "Factors Affecting Variations in Human Fertility," *Social Forces*, October, 1935; S. A. Stouffer, "Trends in the Fertility of Catholics and Non-Catholics," *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1935.

⁸ New York: Ronald, 1936.

¹⁰ Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1936.

⁹ *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November, 1936.

giving a summary of the facts and sources of the distribution of races in Africa, America, and Oceania. Another volume in the same series was David V. Glass' *The Struggle for Population*,¹¹ in which the attempts to encourage population growth both through negative measures, such as laws against contraception and abortion, taxes on bachelors, and other devices, as well as positive measures, such as family allowances, loans, gifts and special privileges to prospective married couples and to families producing children, were discussed. In the countries surveyed, that is in England, Wales, Germany, Italy, France, Belgium, and some other countries, Glass found reason to be skeptical of the efficacy of the measures designed to increase births and asserted that only with the emergence of a social order more conducive to secure and wholesome family life can an increasing birth rate be expected. A somewhat more general study of population growth and distribution was presented by S. Vere Pearson in *Growth and Distribution of Population*,¹² in which the ecological, technological, socio-economic, and political factors influencing population growth and distribution were discussed with some degree of factual detail. Throughout the volume the private ownership of land in its relation to population distribution, the development of human settlements, the planning of cities, and the treatment of the housing problem was regarded as a significant factor impeding rational adjustment. The international aspects of human migration were treated in *Human Migration: A Study of International Movements*,¹³ by Donald R. Taft, with special reference to the problems of adjustment and control involved. This volume laid stress upon the ethical, economic, social, and political factors involved in migration and related migration to the growth and

changing quality of population and to nationalistic feeling. It pointed out the difficulties of estimating the effects of migration and went into considerable detail in presenting an analysis and critique of migration policies and the efficacy of various measures of control. While the book treated migration problems on a world scale, special emphasis was laid upon peculiar American issues relating to the subject. Maurice R. Davie's *World Immigration: With Special Reference to the United States*¹⁴ presented a description of the population movement to the United States since colonial days and offered an analysis of American immigration policy and the administration of its immigration laws. A more summary treatment of immigration to the British dominions and to the Latin American countries was provided, together with a concise discussion of immigrant adjustment and Americanization, based largely on secondary sources. A more specialized study of immigration to the United States was offered in Max J. Kohler's *Immigration and Aliens in the United States*,¹⁵ which was primarily concerned with the development of our immigration policy and particularly the legal aspects of immigration and the legal status of aliens in the United States.

By far the most significant volume that has appeared in the United States in some years in the field of migration was the report of the study of population redistribution carried out under the auspices of the industrial research department of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce at the University of Pennsylvania under the direction of Carter Goodrich, *Migration and Economic Opportunity*.¹⁶ This study centered its primary attention upon the needs and possibilities of population redistribution in the United States. In analyz-

¹¹ *Ibid.*

¹² New York: Wiley, 1935.

¹³ New York: Ronald, 1936.

¹⁴ New York: Macmillan, 1936.

¹⁵ New York: Bloch, 1936.

¹⁶ Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, 1936; reviewed elsewhere in this issue.

ing the historical and present distribution of the American population it took special pains to analyze the differential economic opportunities provided by the various geographic regions of the country. The problems with which the study was concerned have been focused by the disastrous consequences of the economic depression, involving large-scale maladjustment of great proportions of the American people owing to the decline in industrial activity, the distress of agriculture, and the depletion of natural resources. The study examined the relations between the maldistribution of population and the effective functioning of our national economy, and it suggested the possibilities and limitations of improving the situation through national policy from the long-run point of view. The central question in the study was: What shifts in population, if any, would contribute to the more effective utilization of our human and material resources? This question is tied up with the consideration of the human cost and the techniques and administrative problems involved in such a readjustment. The study set forth approximate solutions to the problems raised and offered a wealth of data upon which a more intelligent national policy might be based. A nationwide comparison of the major economic areas of the United States revealed four principal problem areas, the southern Appalachian, the old cotton belt, the cutover region of the northern lake states, and the great plains, besides a number of minor regions including exhausted New England agricultural areas, the cutover country in the gulf, Pacific coast, and lake states, as well as stranded timber and mining populations in various parts of the country. The changing distribution of our natural resources was considered, followed by a study of the changing pattern of industrial location and the changing demand for man power. It was thought that the unguided exploitation of natural resources has created areas of chronic depression and the necessity for major shifts in population

distribution. The various factors which have contributed to the formation of our present pattern of industrial location were analyzed in considerable detail, among them resources, labor supply, markets, transportation systems, urbanization, and governmental policy. Until the depression the movement of population was in general from the poorer to the more favorable areas, while the depression saw a reflow to the poorer areas. The study pointed out that under present conditions it would be quite impossible to subsidize industry in rural environment to an extent that would make this location profitable under wages and working conditions comparable to those prevailing in cities. In view of the fact that industries do not always locate at the most economical site and are not flexible enough in their location to readjust to changing conditions, planned and systematic development of co-ordinated and well organized industrial areas, both old and new, was held out as the best means for achieving a more rational industrial location. The opportunities for future livelihood of the population, which would constitute a mounting surplus as time goes on, was described as generally better in the North and in the West than in the South. While it was recognized that there is some hope of reorganizing rural life in the southern area, and while some industry may be expected to drift into this region, the prospective opportunities were not regarded as sufficient to compensate for the chronic economic deficiencies, for the high birth rate, and the acute and widespread distress of large portions of the population. From the point of view of occupational opportunity, the chances appeared better among certain of the "center," that is manufacturing and transportation, activities than in the "field" occupations, such as agriculture and the extractive industries. From the point of view of communities, the chances of employment appeared better in a relatively small number of urban and industrial districts, and particularly in their expanding

peripheries, than in remote towns or rural areas. The study presented little prospect of wide dispersion of economic activity, although a continuation of the tendency toward diffusion of manufacturing from metropolitan centers outward into areas of moderate concentration, that is the peripheries of cities, appeared most probable. The main currents of population movement, it was pointed out, must flow from the rural regions, particularly those of the South, toward the industrial and urban areas and their expanding peripheries. In connection with the control of migration it was pointed out that the spontaneous movement of the American people, imperfect as it is, and tragic as it becomes at times, cannot be supplanted by a rigid system of control but may be guided or freed of its obstacles through intelligent planning for which hints are supplied from the experiences of foreign countries. American measures to approximate an optimal redistribution of population were subjected to a thoroughgoing critique, including the resettlement efforts, rehabilitation programs, planned communities, land purchase, rural zoning, and conservation. Part-time farming in areas of continuing economic opportunity was regarded as a desirable though limited measure of improvement, but the attempt to bring about widespread dispersion of industry through the creation of isolated homestead communities was not thought to be worth reviving or very likely to succeed. The essentials of a national migration policy were outlined, the cardinal point of which is to encourage mobility and give it more intelligent objectives and guidance, recognizing, however, that in an insecure economy no possible placement of people can make them safe, and that no migration policy can itself guarantee the indispensable increases in economic opportunity. The volume included an analysis of past internal migrations in the United States, a valuable table on the location of manu-

facturing the satellite cities and industrialized counties, with the distribution of wage jobs in major industries and a final appendix on the selection of manufacturing areas for the housing program of the suburban division of the resettlement administration.

In connection with the study of population redistribution, aside from a bulletin on *Internal Migration in the United States* by C. Warren Thornthwaite published in 1934, two bulletins containing data on specialized problems have appeared both in 1935. They were *Migration and Planes of Living* by Carter L. Goodrich, Bushrod W. Allin, and Marion Hayes and *Is Industry Decentralizing?* by Daniel B. Creamer.¹⁷ The essential data contained in these bulletins, however, were incorporated in the volume just discussed.

HUMAN ECOLOGY

ONE of the growing fields in American sociology during the last two decades has been the study of the external aspects of human society, with special reference to the factors involved in producing the patterns of spatial arrangement and distribution and the processes underlying community structure, that is the mutual relations between man and his whole environment. While the study of human ecology has a different emphasis from human geography, in that the latter singles out the relations between man and the physical world in which he lives, whereas the former emphasizes the relations between man and man, as, among other factors, conditioned by the physical world in which he lives, these two fields of interest are nevertheless closely related. An exposition of the scope of human geography and its relation to the social sciences was provided in an article by A. DeMangeon, "La Géographie humaine."¹⁸ Textbooks in geography, such as C. Langdon White and George T. Renner's *Geography: An*

¹⁷ All Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania Press 8.

¹⁸ *Zeitschrift für Sozialforschung*, Heft 3, 1936.

Introduction to Human Ecology,¹⁹ appeared to be taking account of the socioeconomic and political factors influencing the character of human settlement but have contributed little to our knowledge of the rôle of the physical arrangement of site and situation in shaping the structure of the human community. An historian, John E. Pomfret, recently made available a general description of the geographic base in the light of which social historical development and conditions may be understood on a world scale, with especial reference to the United States, in *The Geographic Pattern of Mankind*.²⁰ A somewhat unsystematic presentation of the general concept of ecology with some application to primitive societies and primitive occupations was provided in John W. Bews' *Human Ecology*,²¹ which, however, threw little light on the problems of human ecology as they have developed in research in the United States. A rather extensive presentation of the factual, particularly the statistical, data of interest to the students of social life was presented for the southern part of the United States in Howard W. Odum's *Southern Regions of the United States*,²² in which an extensive series of figures on various items, such as population, resources, technology, and economic, social, and political factors, were presented in comparative form for various parts of the South and, where possible, alongside the data concerning the United States as a whole. This volume was designed to furnish a basis for the more intelligent direction of social effort to the upbuilding of the South but incidentally serves as raw material for the analysis of research problems on a territorial basis. A general discussion of the relevance of the ecological perspective in the analysis of social phe-

nomena was furnished by Robert E. Park's "Succession: an Ecological Concept" in the April, 1936, issue of the *American Sociological Review*, in which the term was used however not merely to denote the process through which one population group in a given habitat is displaced by another but also the process by which one occupational structure is succeeded by another and a given set of institutions is transformed and reshaped through a complex of forces. The concept of succession is thus inflated to include virtually everything that is involved in the life cycle of a community or even a civilization.

Typical of studies showing the influence of an ecological approach to the human community was the study by Edgar T. Thompson in the *American Journal of Sociology* for November, 1935, of "Population Expansion and the Plantation System," in which such external factors as climate and resources, population, transportation, technology, and markets, were related to the development and decline of a social system—in this case the plantation system. In the July, 1936, *Sociological Review* "Social Surveys and Sociology," by A. F. Wells reviewed the various schools of thought from LePlay to the ecological studies of Chicago as they exhibit approaches to the relationship between the milieu and the attitudes and activities of society. Whereas the earlier surveys were largely concerned with the description particularly of the economic phases of life as expressed in terms of family budgets, studies of income and poverty, the more modern studies attempt to point out functional interrelationships among a wider range of social phenomena. In *The Town and a Changing Civilization* David V. Glass²³ offered a brief summary of cities in antiquity and of the trend toward urbanization in Western society since the middle ages. He followed this with an analysis of the internal ecological and social structure

¹⁹ New York: Appleton-Century, 1936.

²⁰ New York: Appleton-Century, 1935.

²¹ Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1936.

²² Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1936.

²³ London: Lane, 1935.

of the modern city, making ample use of the results of American research in this field and attempting to some extent to check and exemplify the American conclusions with data from English cities. The book contained a final but vague chapter on the problems of the city's future, in which the place of the city in the structure of society was pointed out but no significant contributions made to the understanding or solution of the problems of urbanization. The chief value of the book lay in its historical synopsis and semipopular summarization of present research bearing upon the city in civilization.

A comparable semipopular volume, without however the historical perspective of the one just mentioned and with an emphasis upon the religious life and the inner experiences of urban personalities, was *City Man* by Charles Hatch Sears.²⁴ The rôle of religion in the metropolitan community, in which with the breakdown of the neighborhood and the atomization of life personal disorganization is a probable eventuality, was seen to lie in a reorganization of the church to meet the needs of city man.

The best factual compendium and the most adequate comprehensive statement of the various aspects of rural life in America was provided by Edmund de Schweinitz Brunner and J. H. Kolb in *A Study of Rural Society, Its Organization and Changes*.²⁵ But informative as was the wealth of materials it contained about population, incomes, standards of living, institutional arrangements, governmental structure, and function, no attempt was made in the volume to arrive at a statement of the interrelations between these various factors. We can understand from this volume that the rural community is different from the urban community, but not why this difference exists. Many of the essential facts about standards of living in

rural America were given, but we did not see these facts as expressions of certain processes at work transforming American life and affecting rural existence; nor did we see them expressing themselves in different modes of living, feeling, and thinking. In short, like most of the studies of rural life (and for that matter urban life) in the United States, the factual data that are available have not been exploited for the purpose of providing insight into the structure of society and the characteristic social behavior of its members. Until a theoretical framework is developed by sociologists which will relate to one another the endless series of facts drawn from the demographic, technological, economic, and governmental administrative spheres, no truly sociological view of society is attainable.

SOCIAL PLANNING

NO subject has been more widely discussed by sociologists and by other social scientists, particularly in the two years under review, than has the topic of social planning. It has furnished the central theme for meetings of learned societies and has given rise to new technical bodies. For his presidential address to the American Sociological Society, E. W. Burgess chose the subject "Social Planning and the Mores."²⁶ Individualism, democracy, and humanitarianism were pointed out as the principal elements in the American mores with which every effort at social planning must reckon. The success of the American type of social planning is conditioned by the extent to which it can operate without transgressing the traditional framework of a free society in which the values of individualism, democracy, and humanitarianism are preserved, nurtured, and extended. The conceptions of individualism, democracy, and humanitarianism may have to be reformulated in the light of past and impending changes, but their value as

²⁴ New York: Harper, 1936.

²⁵ Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1935.

²⁶ *Publication of the American Sociological Society*, August, 1935.

symbols remains great. The dependence of the success of planning upon the mores suggests the significant rôle of the sociologists in planning efforts. A similar view was expounded by Robert E. Park in his paper on "Human Nature and Social Planning,"²⁷ in which the basic limiting elements that human nature sets to planning enterprise were set forth, and the irrational factors conditioning success in planning pointed out. The 1935 meeting of the American Sociological Society again adopted the same theme under the title of "Social Theory and Social Action,"²⁸ which was also the title of the presidential address of F. Stuart Chapin, in which the distinction between planned and unplanned activities was brought into relation with normative and non-normative social theory, respectively. The range of unplanned social action, it was held, has been enormously extended by technological devices in communication and transportation. A skeptical attitude toward social planning was expressed by Pitirim A. Sorokin, in an article published in the same magazine, "Is Accurate Social Planning Possible?" Since socio-cultural life changes incessantly, planning was alleged to be unavoidable, and to have always been engaged in, but dependent for its success upon our ability to predict and to forecast, which is still very limited.

The subject of planning in connection with rural life furnished the theme of the seventeenth American Country Life Conference, the papers of which have been collected in *National Planning and Rural Life*.²⁹ Notable in these papers was the discussion of the planning of agriculture in relation to industry by M. L. Wilson, in which a middle course representing a tendency toward industrial decentralization and the development of rural industrial communities was held out as a

probable solution of acute agricultural as well as industrial distress; and a paper by O. E. Baker, "Population and Occupational Shifts," held the outlook for rural youth to be promising in view of the decline in number of city youth but advocated the program of encouraging rural youth to remain on the farm and to preserve the race. The 1935 program of the American Country Life Conference, *Country Life Programs*,³⁰ contained a presidential address by Carl C. Taylor, "What Kind of Rural Life Can We Look Forward to in the United States?" in which the possible social implications of technological development, population changes, and governmental policy were discussed and commercial agriculture evaluated as over against agriculture based on production for home consumption. The prediction was made that a rural culture is developing in the United States which will be a mixture of some of the characteristics of peasantry with those of modern commercialism, industrialism, and urbanism, and some characteristics combining these two cultures. Of special interest in this volume also was a summary of "Population Movements Affecting the Welfare of the Farm Family," by Warren S. Thompson, in which the shortcomings of a needed policy of population redistribution were set forth, and a national program looking forward to stabilizing farm income and farm production, and to assuring the farmer a fair share of the total national income including cultural services, was called for.

Of considerable interest to social scientists and to sociologists in particular were the 1935 and 1936 *American Planning and Civic Annual*³¹ volumes, in which social planning was considered as a governmental activity on a national, state, regional, and local level, with particular reference to land planning, the planning of physical re-

²⁷ *Ibid.*

²⁸ *American Sociological Review*, February, 1936.

²⁹ Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1935.

³⁰ Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1936.

³¹ Washington: American Planning and Civic Assoc., 1935-1936.

sources, and administrative problems. The 1936 volume centered around the theme of national and state planning of parks. Of special interest to the sociologist was the section in the 1935 volume of planning in the cities and towns, in which the problems and emerging policies in the reshaping of American cities were presented from a variety of technical and administrative points of view.

It is a notable fact that the chief contribution of social scientists, especially sociologists, to planning has been the laying bare of the presuppositions underlying planning activities, which on the whole has had a deflating influence, and on the positive side contributing the basic data concerning population and socio-economic trends upon which must ultimately depend an analysis and a forecast of what is possible in relation to what is probable. Since the major interest of planners in this country thus far has been confined largely to the planning of physical resources, and since they have generally disregarded the possible repercussions of their efforts upon social organization, no place has as yet been accorded to the specific contributions sociology might make to this problem, aside from the furnishing of demographic data.

SOCIOLOGICAL THEORY

THE interest in the construction of a systematic sociological theory has not found much favor among American sociologists of the dominant generation. Symptomatic of this situation is the fact that the most rigorous attempt at the formulation of a system has come from a Polish sociologist, Florian Znaniecki, who has had long experience in America both as a teacher and as an author, especially in his collaboration in 1927 with William I. Thomas in *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America*. His *Social Actions*³² was an attempt at the construction of a formal sociology which

would provide, in part at least, a body of concepts for utilization in research and unification of its results. The major section of the work consisted in the careful definition of various sorts of actions most of which have already been the subject of consideration in important American contributions to formal sociology, such as Park's and Burgess' and Cooley's. As over against its merit of precise statement, the book suffered from such a narrow definition of the subject matter of sociology that it would deny the desirability of treating with sociological concepts just those subjects which the hitherto existing academic division of labor in the United States has excluded from the sociological approach, particularly political and economic phenomena.

It was the opposite intention which motivated the various British social scientists whose papers were collected in the volume *The Social Sciences: Their Relations in Theory and in Teaching*.³³ The excellent essay by M. M. Postan, the economic historian, made a clear statement of the case against the "descriptive historians" who claim to operate without concepts, underlining very sharply the indispensability of organizing and selecting concepts. He pointed out also the importance of generalized knowledge for social technology as follows: "Every social generalization successfully constructed is a step away from the infinite expectations of an infant, or of a culture at its pre-scientific stage and a step towards the more limited range of expectation of a man 'wise' about life, or of a generation in the possession of an ordered and classified social experience." Harold J. Laski's "Political Theory and the Social Sciences" came out for a more analytical approach in political science which will bring it nearer to the sociological way of looking at political phenomena instead of the purely descriptive or normative methods that characterize the older political science. J. R. Hicks stated the

³² New York: Farrar, 1936.

³³ London: LePlay House Press, 1936.

necessity of extending the territory of sociology, which as an economist he wished to be moved up to the very boundaries of theoretical economics so as to show the extra-economic phenomena on which economic phenomena depend. A similar statement, although somewhat less incisive, was to be found in P. Sargent Florence's essay. Karl Mannheim's article in the collection was likewise a plea for the co-ordination of our knowledge in the different social fields, and he illustrated this necessity by a brilliant analysis of the categories involved in the study of work incentives, showing that neither psychological nor economic categories alone are adequate but must rather both be integrated within a broad sociological framework. He concluded his essay with an analysis of formal and structural sociology which should do much to clarify the status of these two types of sociological thinking.

The interest that permeates *The Social Sciences* is also the theme of Adolf Löwe's *Economics and Sociology: A Plea for Co-operation in the Social Sciences*³⁴ in which the author, an eminent German economist now at the University of Manchester, demonstrated on the basis of an analysis of various special propositions in theoretical economics the necessity of their supplementation by sociological analysis. An "economic sociology" must be developed "to render concrete the abstract schemes and working hypotheses of economic theory." A realistic economic theory which deals with the various concrete economic systems will not compete with but will rather complete pure theory. It will be less abstract, dealing as it does with those intermediate processes through which the economic process functions as a part of the total social process. One found in Löwe's book not merely very persuasive programmatic statements for the reconstitution of the relations between economics and sociology but also many penetrating and il-

luminating instances as to how this is to proceed. For a number of special economic generalizations, for example, the law of supply and demand, he showed the non-economic preconditions which are indispensable for their operation.

A similar feeling of the inadequacy of pure economics for the understanding of social life and a systematic attempt to supplement sociologically was a dominant note in Vilfredo Pareto's *Mind and Society*,³⁵ which in its Italian and French editions has been famous for many years. Pareto sought to develop a theory of the structure of social domination which would explain the demagogic plutocracies of the modern western world. This led him to turn his sociology primarily into a theory of social selection according to psychological characteristics. Pareto's sociology was not a general sociology in the sense that it was an analysis of the major institutions and their relations with one another. The church, the family, etc. were mentioned only as incidental to his analysis of elites and their psychological foundations. His desire to explain class changes directly from psychological factors necessitated a very complex elaboration of the concepts of logical action and non-logical action and their component units, the sentiments, the residues, and derivations. Pareto's ideas on this subject were far from unambiguous, and even his firmest proponents are not certain of the value of his numerous subclasses of the residues and derivations. On the whole there has been a strong wave of negative criticisms, which can be sampled in a symposium in the *Journal of Social Philosophy* of October, 1935, in reviews by Faris in the March, 1936, issue of the *American Journal of Sociology*, by Ginsberg in the July, 1936, *Sociological Review*, and in Franz Borkenau's *Pareto*,³⁶ the most thorough and most consistent analysis Pareto has yet received. On the more favorable

³⁴ London: Allen & Unwin.

³⁵ New York: Harcourt, 1935.

³⁶ New York: Wiley, 1936.

side, which has attempted to present an analysis of Pareto that would place him more in the current of the understanding sociology, of which the greatest representative was Max Weber, and which has emphasized the value of Pareto's methodological contributions as much as his material ones, are Lawrence J. Henderson³⁷ and Talcott Parsons.³⁸ The latter developed a cogent view which if accepted makes Pareto's sociology much more meaningful and unified than would appear from the other side. Reference should also be made to the articles "Sociological Elements in Economic Thought" in the May and August, 1935, issues of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, where Parsons set forth an analysis of the relations between economic theory and sociology in the works of Marshall, Pareto, Durkheim, and Max Weber.

Ferdinand Tönnies' *Geist der Neuzeit*³⁹ was a structural analysis of the modern epoch and its origins in the various phases of medieval life. Especially interesting was his tracing of the sources of individualistic mentality in a collectivistically oriented society, and his attempt to determine the share each has in the constitution of modern life. Space is lacking to discuss an anniversary volume to Tönnies, *Reine und Angewandte Soziologie*,⁴⁰ Albert Salomon's "Ferdinand Tönnies: and also In Memoriam."⁴¹

We also slight Floyd N. House's *The Development of Sociology*,⁴² on the history of sociology running from remote antiquity through the eighteenth century in very cursory and superficial style, although it has a merit many other works on the same

subject lack, namely, a rather broad view of the sources of modern sociological work, which led the author to include sections on social surveys, human geography, statistics, and other fields, although these too were imperfectly integrated with the rest.

Bilan de la sociologie française contemporaine and *La sociologie allemande contemporaine* appeared in *La nouvelle encyclopédie philosophique* by C. Bouglé and Robert Aron, respectively.⁴³ The former was largely a summary of the work of Durkheim and his school with some remarks on some closely affiliated movements in history and jurisprudence. Valuable to Americans will be the last two sections on economic sociology, which dealt with the work of Simiand and Halbwachs, two authors whose works are insufficiently known among American students of the social sciences. Aron's book was a literal summary of what the author believed to be the key sections of the work of recent German sociologists. On the sociology of knowledge the author disregarded the numerous valuable concrete investigations which have been made in order to concentrate on a rather dubious criticism of the philosophical premises upon which this current of sociology is supposed to be based. The best section of the book was that on Max Weber. The author summarized the theory of the relations between Protestantism and capitalism adequately and gave a satisfactory account of Weber's method, but his exposition of Weber's general sociology was rather scant.

Finally, John A. Hobson's *Veblen*⁴⁴ should be noted, not so much for its systematization of Veblen's ideas as for the faithful summary of his main works. Since it was less encumbered with biographical details than J. Dorfman's larger work, it should be useful as a concise guide to Veblen's suggestive and often profound insights into borderlands of sociology and economics.

(To be continued)

³⁷ Pareto's *General Sociology: a Physiologist's Interpretation*. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1935.

³⁸ "Pareto's Central Analytical Scheme," *Journal of Social Philosophy*, April, 1936; *American Sociological Review*, February, 1936; *American Economic Review*, September, 1935.

³⁹ Leipzig, Hans Buske, 1935.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, 1936.

⁴¹ *Social Research*, August, 1936.

⁴² New York, McGraw-Hill, 1936.

⁴³ Paris: F. Alcan. 1935.

⁴⁴ London: Chapman.

Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

STILL the world trembles on the very edge of war's abyss, fearful and apparently impotent to gather together all its resources for those measures necessary to avoid being carried beyond the brink. The philosophical questions of war and peace have engaged the attention of many thinkers for generations; but there never was a moment in the world's consciousness when those questions were more absorbing. To the summer number of the *American Scholar* A. J. Muste contributes "Fight the Good Fight." Looking about him among socially minded idealists, liberals and radicals, he finds that they are talking of "just one more war 'to stop the mad fascist dogs' . . . to protect democracy and usher in a less war-like and more just social order." In spite of the fact that they admit the bitter failure of the World War to accomplish any of the high purposes so loudly proclaimed at the time, they are today convinced "that another war fought with much more deadly weapons, more intense bitterness and more complete regimentation than the last will by some magic produce all the goods which the World War so obviously and utterly failed to produce. One would have thought it would require more than the substitution of the word 'dog' for 'Hun,' 'Fuehrer' or 'Duce' for 'Kaiser,' and 'fascism' for 'autocracy,' to give currency and plausibility to such an amazing piece of reasoning as this."

Carl Becker's "Loving Peace and Waging War" in the summer *Yale Review* analyzes the implications of war as "a habit of civilization." He points out that in "the real

world men are never (except in an academic discussion) offered a choice between peace and conflict; they are offered a choice between doing or not doing what they judge necessary under the particular circumstances in order to obtain the concrete good or to avoid the concrete evil." The article is important for such details as a page of summary of the net results of the major wars in the last three centuries as well as for the main trend of his argument that the confusion of the idea of war with any idea of right or justice has done great harm to our thought, as has the confusion occasioned by the accusation that wars are brought on primarily by diplomats and statesmen in league with bankers and munition makers. "Justice within the nations will be established only when the people who create and sustain governments make use of the mechanism of government for that purpose; and peace between nations will be established only when the people who create and sustain governments require them to make use of the League, or some similar mechanism, for that purpose. In the end, all depends upon the people, the interests they cherish, the opinions they hold, the instinctive emotional responses that give them satisfaction. The enlightenment of the people is the main thing; admittedly a slow business, but not to be advanced by beating their brains out."

"The War Boom Beginning" by John T. Flynn in the July *Harpers* points out America's part in the situation with its very apparent present and what he considers its inevitable future.

MEDITERRANEAN

SPAIN and the Mediterranean continue to engage our attention. William L. Langer's "Tribulations of Empire: the Mediterranean Problem" in *Foreign Affairs* of July discusses the shifting problems of national friendships and national rivalries in the Mediterranean since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869. Such marshalling of the details of a constantly changing situation is interesting, as is the conclusion: "There seems little that can be said in definite terms about the future of the Mediterranean problem until after the Spanish conflict has been decided. And how can it be decided so long as England and France refuse to allow the Fascist Powers to send sufficient help to assure a Fascist victory in Spain and so long as Italy and Germany refuse to entertain the notion of a radical government there? Plainly the Mediterranean problem is to be with us for a long time yet as a major focal point of international relations and international dispute."

Also in the same issue of *Foreign Affairs* is D. Graham Hutton's "British Policy Towards Spain" since the beginning of Franco's revolt a year ago last July. Of the interest of Italy and Germany in the affair he says, with a somewhat astonishing figure of speech drawn from the card table, that "they might obtain all the aces in the diplomatic rubber, of which they had already won the rearmament, Abyssinian and Rhineland tricks." Yet it is clear enough that he thinks these two countries saw their own ambitions clearly and made fairly concerted efforts to realize them. It is the shifting attitudes of the British cabinet that is difficult to understand. On the whole Britain's course seems to have been to let things happen as they would in Spain, together with the Balearic Islands and the Spanish part of Morocco, as long as British subjects, materials, and shipping were not actually involved.

Wholly aside from any sympathy or lack of sympathy with the avowed or implicit

aims of the warring parties, it seems as if national interest in Great Britain would have forced her to take into consideration the fact that, if Spain is controlled by Italy, Germany, or any Spanish leader beholden for his supremacy to either of those two countries, Great Britain's own imperial highway through the Mediterranean will be in danger. Moreover the same kind of menace to French African resources, as well as the encirclement of France by fascist countries, would indirectly weaken British influence on the continent of Europe.

Most of British public opinion has believed all this, but those on the extreme Right, few in number but active in opinion, have taken a narrow class conception of their empire's interest. They have concentrated their attention on the fact that the French government opposing Franco was a Popular Front government, that the constituted Spanish government was called a Popular Front government, and that the Communists have supported the legal government while Spanish men of property were supporting Franco. All this has succeeded in dividing the British cabinet. "In this division, be it said, the Cabinet faithfully reflected the divided sentiments of the Conservative majority in the Commons and the division of sympathies over Abyssinia, sanctions and the Hoare-Laval plans which had existed less than a year earlier. On the question of isolationism versus collective security; limitation of armament versus unilateral rearmament; collaboration with France and the small European democracies, aided by Russia, versus the issuance of a *laissez passer* to the German, Italian and Japanese totalitarian states the Conservative Party had been divided ever since it had jettisoned the Geneva Protocol in 1925 and lowered its eyelids over Manchuria in 1931-32." It has not seemed to be a deliberate policy at all, but only a series of temporary decisions by a cabinet—blowing now hot and now cold and united only in avoiding any positive actions.

STRICTLY as an aside here I wish to remark that Americans watching the internal struggles in London over the Spanish Civil War cannot fail to recall the course of British diplomatic history during our own Civil War, when the same kind of a series of narrow chances prevented British recognition of the Southern Confederacy and made possible the outcome which we are too much accustomed to regard as inevitable. Awareness of the present delicate balance makes more real for us our knowledge of the past; and, conversely, our appreciation of the similarities in the lights and shadows of those waters that long ago ran under the bridge makes us realize afresh the eternal identity of the stream of life.

THE Distempers of Europe" in the September issue of the *Atlantic* by Sir Arthur Willert offers the opinion that it is possible that Anthony Eden has acted as he did because he was convinced that European democracies have more to fear from being ground between the millstones of the ideologies of the fascist and the communist governments than from the power policies of the "have-not" nations. Sir Arthur's own belief is that the struggle really lies between democracy and dictatorship, be that dictatorship the government of Fascist Italy, Nazi Germany, or Communist Russia. To him it is "power politics rather than ideologies that matter." He sees a real hope for a way out. "The democracies have still time to recapture the leadership of Europe. And, as is beginning to be recognized from one end of the continent to the other, President Roosevelt and Mr. Hull have given them the opportunity to do so. . . . Everybody is discussing the possibility of a concerted economic attack upon the ills of the world, since the direct political attack has so clearly failed. It is realized, however, in regard to economic matters the United States cannot be expected to take the initiative or any serious measure of direct responsibility on her side of the Atlantic. The question, therefore, is whether

Great Britain will do so." Will war wait?

Time seems to have worked against Franco. Louis Fischer in the *Nation* of August 7 is sure that "Franco Cannot Win." The *National Review*, a Conservative English publication on the whole favorable to the ideas Franco represents, is not so sure: "It would be a very good thing if all foreign fighting men could be withdrawn from Spain, but this does not mean that the war would be quickly over. The Spaniards can fight this kind of war for years."

PALESTINE, the British mandate at the other end of the Mediterranean Sea, continues in turmoil. Pierre Crabitès presents an important picture of the "Storm Rising in Palestine" in the July *Atlantic*, which ought to be read by all those persons who feel very sure of their sympathies and of their knowledge of the rights and wrongs of this controversy.

ETHIOPIA appears to be a conquered province. Certainly Emilio De Bono in his article, "Planning the Ethiopian Conquest" in the August number of *Harpers*, assumes that as a fact. Moreover he reveals an attitude of mind that must be astounding to the most cynical observer of international relations. I am not at all sure that the usual pious pretenses are more moral, but at least they imply the possession of some understanding that another way of life might exist! I can not quote from this article, because without reading the whole thing any fair-minded individual would be sure that I was quoting maliciously and unjustly. Nevertheless there it stands as written by the man who was in charge of the preparation and the prosecution of that expedition. As for the ultimate outcome of the whole situation, "Defiant Ethiopia" by Ladislav Farago in the August issue of *Living Age* says that "Italy will probably be forced to abandon Ethiopia. That is the opinion of impartial French observers. . . . They fear that a complete collapse of Italian authority in Ethiopia cannot long be de-

layed. In that case Italian authority would be replaced by anarchy, terror and complete lawlessness."

CHINA

AFTER months of rumbling the volcano that is the Chinese situation has burst forth again. The *New Republic* of September 8 is sure what the American course of action in the circumstances ought to be and that what has been done is all wrong. It urges American declaration of the existence of a state of war, which would automatically bring into operation the provisions of the new neutrality act to forbid American credit to the belligerents and the export of war materials, and to put other export materials on a cash-and-carry basis. "War in China has now been going on for several weeks, and both Japan and China are obviously enlisted for its duration. Several incidents have occurred, and more are certain to come. . . . Yet the President and Secretary Hull blandly continue to act as if they had a completely free hand to pursue whatever course they pleased, as if Congress had not in advance prescribed their policy in just such a situation as this. . . . The choice before the administration is clear; either (1) it proceeds on the assumption that it can and should bring compulsion to bear on Japan to cease its attempt to conquer China, with all the damage to Occidental interests that that attempt necessarily involves, or (2) it obeys the law and adopts as its main purpose keeping this nation out of trouble in the Far East. The early decisions are the crucial ones. If Mr. Roosevelt continues to pursue the first course, he will be responsible for the possible consequences, in a sense that no previous war President has ever been. For he is forewarned, and he will be adopting the policy in defiance of the expressed will of Congress and the people."

Others find themselves less clear about the desirable and necessary course of action to be pursued by these United States. In "Americans Look at Their Far Eastern Pol-

icy" in the June issue of *Pacific Affairs* Russell E. Hall reports the results of inquiries sent to a group of the members of the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations. The replies "indicate that not even among experts is there a unified body of opinion as to the future course of American policy in the Pacific, so diverse are the views expressed and so contradictory the arguments set forth. . . . Examining individual statements in detail, one finds a sharp division of opinion as to the exact nature of the present American policy and the desirability of its continuation." Of course in June the entire present situation had not yet unfolded itself; but, out of the forty-three who replied to the inquiry at all, only eight expressed their opinion that "in the event of war in the Far East . . . the United States should remain strictly neutral."

The *New Republic* of September 8 points out the tremendous British economic interests south of Shanghai and her imperial interests in the same regions. "The farther south the war develops, the closer we get to British intervention. But Britain does not want to threaten force alone. She needs American help, and she sees the chance of obtaining this in a continuation of our traditional policy of condemning aggression, of maintaining the open door in China, and of preserving the integrity of the Chinese nation. The campaign to enlist our support in a unified stand against Japan is already well under way."

Still in doubt is the question whether China will resist with her whole might. An affirmative answer to that question is given in the August *Forum* in "China Unconquerable" by Madame Sun Yat-sen, the widow of the leader of the Chinese revolutionary movement before the World War and in 1921 and 1922 President of the southern Chinese government.

Japan's weaknesses and necessities are analyzed by Nathaniel Peffer in *Harpers* for September, her smallness, her lack of natural resources, and her late arrival in

the struggle for world dominion. Japan "will never bestride the world, not even the Eastern world. . . . Japan has attempted the impossible, has stepped too far out of its appointed sphere, and for that its people are now paying and must continue to pay."

PROPHECY

OPINIONS and prophecies as to the technical achievements of war's offensive and defensive weapons are constantly put forward. "Who Dares to Fight" in the August issue of *Fortune* examines elaborately the hopes and fears of technical performance in the next great war and, on the basis of the tryouts in Spain, comes to the conclusion that no new weapons have been developed since the World War. Such inventions as a death ray, germs harmless to the attacker but fatal to the attacked, a flying submarine, automatic bomber, or mystery gas have just not materialized. The existing weapons have merely been perfected. Moreover it continues to be impossible to transport enough gasoline or other fuel to provide for the fantastically horrible attacks of war fiction. The evidence seems abundant to *Fortune's* writer that the weight of advantage to the attacker remains about what it was in the World War, if not rather less. That war demonstrated rather completely that that weight of advantage to the attacker was not enough to insure victory.

Standing in the way of my complete satisfaction with this analysis is a certain amount of doubt in my own mind as to whether the rulers of such countries as Germany, Italy, and Japan share the same technical opinion. The opinions of the writer of the article in *Fortune* may be entirely true; but, if those opinions are not shared by some groups over whom we have no control, then war will come, useless and devastating even though, as *Fortune's* writer says, the engines of war are not yet capable of destroying entirely all the material and spiritual attributes of the life and culture that we are accustomed to call civilization.

LOCAL AND NATIONAL

VARIOUS articles in this summer's general magazines have been of peculiar importance to teachers in the professional and personal aspects of their lives. In the August *Harpers* Brooks Shepard's "I Like to Teach" puts down in writing much of what we all feel, and it is a pleasure to see it set down in print. Married women who are teaching, whatever their own problems and whatever their own solutions, might be interested in "I Quit My Job" in the July *Forum*, as a picture of the difficulties of a woman with two fulltime jobs, one a man's job and the other a woman's job in the household. "A man works from sun to sun, but a woman's work is never done."

A new teacher with a troublesome member of her class very often seeks help from a teacher of longer service in the system, and gets it in the form of a brief history of the child's experiences in that school. I have always deplored many of the results of this custom, since I believe that a leopard often changes his spots—that is if the leopard is an adolescent child—and it is bad for the newer teacher to operate on the basis of the older one's estimate of the child. Still, as a historian, I cannot escape the general belief in the value of judging the present in the light of the past. Therefore I was wholly interested in George R. Leighton's two new descriptions of present conditions of cities in the light of their own pasts. I have already (in February) mentioned an earlier article on Shenandoah, Pennsylvania. The summer *Harpers*, in August and September, has provided his articles "Birmingham, Alabama, the City of Perpetual Promise" and "Louisville, Kentucky: an American Museum Piece." The *National Geographic Magazine* continues its series of state articles, in July "On Goes Wisconsin" by Glanville Smith, "Speaking of Kansas" by Frederick Simpich in August, and "Machines Come to Mississippi" by J. R. Hildebrand in September. "In the White Mountains" by Leonard

Cornell Roy in July provides the same kind of pictures and discussion for the mountainous region of New Hampshire.

"The Cow Country in Transition" by Edward Everett Dale, the presidential address given before the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, is printed in the June issue of the *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*. It describes the changing social and economic character of a region by making clear how adjustment took place among definite groups, the motives, necessities, and mental processes that accompanied the change and brought it about. The method and the kind of treatment would be very useful to a teacher whose training and grasp of historical detail make it possible to do the same kind of thing for other situations in which a whole society was changing. For those who lack a present adequate grasp of a period of change, such as for instance the ironing out of frontier society in any region, the article might serve as a framework within which to set bits of information gathered later.

DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION

CHARLES A. BEARD in the September issue of *Social Research* discusses "Democracy and Education in the United States." He quotes the excellent description of monarchy or despotism as like a trim sailboat, elegant and comfortable in good weather but very likely to turn over when she hits a rock in the storm. On the other hand democracy "is like an old scow; your feet are always wet, there is always disorder aboard, but you can't sink her." He analyzes some of the qualities that mark American democracy as a part of European democracy and as differentiated from it, reminds his readers that this country was established at a time when Europe was

ruled by despots, and points out that these United States may conceivably maintain a government by democratic form and process even though despotism again claims the whole continent of Europe. I think he has no wish to see the experiment tried, but his point is that living under a despotism would be to him no more enjoyable because it happened to be the prevailing style in Europe or anywhere else. "As for myself, I don't propose to enjoy the prospect of having smallpox because my neighbors have it."

"WHAT then is the function of education in American democracy? It presents, as I am given to see it, four obligations. The first is to instruct youth in those humane ideals which form the essence of democracy and its primary cohesive force. These are moral values, as distinguished from the values of sheer physical might and sheer greed; and instruction in these moral values should be exemplified in class room, community, group and national practice. The second obligation is to furnish youth a realistic knowledge of our political institutions and practices—as realistic as science, research and exposition can make it. The third obligation is instruction in the realities of economic processes, their relation to standards of life and their intimate affiliations with the nature, operation and prospects of democracy. The fourth obligation is the enrichment of individual life by instruction in the noblest and best creations of men and women in letters, the arts, the sciences and all other splendid manifestations of the human spirit. And all these things must be taught in relation to life, the life of men and women as it is actually lived, with its liberties and its sacrifices, its greeds and its mercies." If we are to live in a democracy we must continuously recreate it.

NOTES AND NEWS

NEW YEARBOOK

The *Eighth Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies, "The Contribution of Research to the Social Studies," will appear in November. The advance in the date of publication will make the volume, and its successors, available for discussion at the annual November meeting.

The *Yearbook* is edited by C. C. Barnes, head of the social-science department of the Detroit public schools and first vice-president of the National Council for the Social Studies. It includes chapters on the unit and unit method in the social studies by John R. Davey and Howard C. Hill; on objectives by Fremont P. Wirth; on methods by Burr W. Phillips; on directing pupils' study by Florence R. Tryon; on correlation involving the social studies by Arthur Dondineau and Stanley Dimond; on collateral readings by R. E. Swindler; on visual aids by John A. Nietz; on current events by Wilbur F. Murra; and on testing by J. W. Wrightstone.

Subscription to the *Yearbook* is included in National Council membership. To others the price is two dollars. Members who desire the volume bound in cloth may have it by sending thirty cents to Howard E. Wilson, Secretary, 18 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, before November 5.

ST LOUIS PROGRAM

Plans for the St Louis meeting on November 26-27 are being completed. One program, under the chairmanship of Professor

Burr Phillips of the University of Wisconsin, will be devoted to "The Social Studies in the Eight-Year Experiment of the Progressive Education Association." The speakers will be Laura Ullrick, of the New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois; Hazel M. Cornell, of the Frances W. Parker School, Chicago; and G. H. V. Melone, of the John Burroughs School, St Louis County, Missouri. The discussion will be led by Louis B. Rath, of the Ohio State University, a member of the evaluation staff of the Progressive Education Association, and C. A. Phillips, of the School of Education, University of Missouri.

The new *Yearbook*, already mentioned on this page, will be discussed in an evening session under the leadership of Professors Ernest Horn and Rolla M. Tryon.

Professor A. C. Krey will speak on "The World's Greatest Educational Experiment." The full program will appear in the November issue.

NOMINATING COMMITTEE

Members of the National Council are reminded again that they are invited to send suggestions to the nominating committee which will report at the St Louis meeting in November. The members are A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, chairman; Florence R. Tryon, Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee; and Howard Cummings, Clayton High School, St Louis. It is customary to elect a new second vice-president and two members of the executive committee.

KENTUCKY

The Kentucky Council for the Social Studies will bring its first year to a close with the second annual meeting at the University of Kentucky, Lexington, on October 29-30. The sessions will include a program devoted to visual aids in social-studies instruction, a teachers' panel on "Problems of Social Studies Teaching," two general sessions, a business meeting, and a luncheon meeting at which Professor Elmer Ellis, president of the National Council for the Social Studies, will speak.

Activities of the Kentucky Council for the past year were varied and uniformly successful. A membership campaign and four local meetings acquainted the teachers of the state with the new organization. A publicity campaign for the National Council was carried out in the distribution of literature and by a form letter to all social-studies teachers in the state high schools. The Council published a small bimonthly bulletin which was mailed to all members. A survey of the social studies in the high schools of the state was authorized by the Council and is being directed by a research committee. A brief study of social-studies clubs in the high schools was made for the research number of the bulletin. A policy of supplying the state teachers' journal with an article of interest to social-studies teachers each month is being carried out. The Council offered to supply the eleven district education associations in the state with speakers for a sectional program for the social studies. Affiliation with the National Council for the Social Studies was effected. The Council expects to be represented by a good delegation at the St. Louis meeting of the National Council in November.

Officers of the Council for the year closing are E. F. Hartford, duPont Manual Training High School, Louisville, president; D. T. Cooper, principal, Washington Junior High School, Paducah, vice-president; and Miss Ercell Jane Egbert, Western Teachers College, Bowling Green, secretary-treasurer.

E. F. H.

PICTORIAL MATERIAL

"State Library Agencies as Sources of Pictorial Material for Social Studies" are listed and described in Leaflet 34, United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1937 (Government Printing Office, 5 cents). Pictorial material is now loaned to schools by 29 agencies in 27 states. No fees are charged, but usually transportation costs must be met by the borrowers. The leaflet lists topics for which material is available in the libraries listed.

HISTORICAL PLACES

Glimpses of Historical Areas East of the Mississippi River Administered by the National Park Service, an illustrated handbook, which may be used in history and geography classes, is to be had free of charge by writing to the National Park Service, Washington, D. C. The publication is divided into six parts, namely: the Colonial Period, the Revolution, the Early Republic, the War between the States, the Recent Era, and Historical Areas in the District of Columbia, such as the Washington Monument, Lincoln Memorial, the house where Lincoln died, etc. Among the many illustrations is Wakefield house, George Washington's birthplace. Six full-page sectional road maps covering the whole territory are also included (*School Life*).

BROADCASTING CONFERENCE

The second National Conference on Educational Broadcasting will be held in Chicago on November 29, 30, and December 1 at the Drake Hotel. The four general sessions will consider the American system of broadcasting, an evaluation of broadcasting from the point of view of the listener, educational broadcasting, and the future of radio. Section meetings on special aspects are also scheduled. The international significance of radio is the subject of a dinner conference. For further details address Dr C. S. Marsh, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

AN HONOR SCHOOL

In the September issue of *High Points*, the journal of high-school teachers in New York City, Sarah Wolfson describes how "James Monroe High School organizes an Honor School: the Founding of a Tradition." She urges that although the first task of secondary schools is to prepare for citizenship, and although not everyone can achieve scholarship, yet scholarship still has an important rôle in our high schools; "it is obvious that the best development of those with the finest mentality is desirable and has a use in the social scheme." This development has become difficult, "for unfortunately every adjustment made in the educational program to meet the needs of the larger group has resulted in an attenuation of scholarship."

The segregation of able pupils is necessary:

"In the typical class-room situation, with an unselected group, the conscientious teacher, faced with the two problems of pulling the weak pupil up to the minimum standard and developing the bright pupil to his highest capacity, tries to distribute the emphasis and attention equally. However carefully the balance is maintained, it is natural to let those who can take care of themselves do so, and to concentrate upon the weaker members of the class. The bright pupil is in the position of getting less attention because his ability is better: a pathetic reward for being superior. The teacher is in the equally sad position of expending the greatest amount of effort on the least responsive material. Left to themselves, bright pupils frequently get along quite well, and draw no attention to themselves because they can maintain a satisfactory standard without ever extending themselves. It is impossible to know to what extent they might have developed, if stimulated to their maximum effort."

The plan at James Monroe is based upon the idea that "success in one subject and failure or a less degree of success in another can be attributed to various degrees of interest and application." The top 10 per cent were selected on the basis of marks

and standardized-test ratings; a minimum IQ rating of 110 was required. Conduct ratings were ignored, for discipline cases sometimes result from lack of stimulation. To avoid the strain resulting from possible elimination no one was dropped from the honor school during the year, even though achievement fell short of expectation. Completion of the four-year program in three and a half years was discouraged. Electives were altogether eliminated in the first two years, and sharply limited in the third. Systematic instruction in the technique of study was provided. Individual teachers were allowed much freedom. An integrated curriculum was considered and rejected, though incidental correlations were encouraged.

Careful records are being kept. Teachers meet from time to time to exchange observation. Miss Wolfson is optimistic about the experiment, but observes that "the real test of the Honor School upon these children will come years later."

CO-OPERATIVES

The May issue of *New Frontiers* (Volume V, number 5); League for Industrial Democracy, 112 East 19th Street, New York, N. Y. 25 cents, publishes "Consumers' Cooperation—a Social Interpretation," by Harry W. Laidler, and "The Consumers' Cooperative Movement, a Factual Survey," by Wallace J. Campbell. A selective bibliography of books, pamphlets, and articles is appended.

In the April issue Finn Moe discusses the question "Does Norwegian Labor Seek the Middle Way?"

Readers are invited to send in items for "Notes and News." Items for December should be sent by November 1.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Teacher of the Social Studies. By William C. Bagley and Thomas Alexander. New York: Scribner, 1937. Pp. xiv, 328. \$2.00.

This fourteenth volume of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, appointed some ten years ago by the American Historical Association, brings the publications of the commission nearly to a close. We have come to expect from this series not only careful scholarship but inspiration and a degree of creative thinking which has led us to await each successive volume with keen interest and has given most of them high rank in the permanent literature of the subject.

The present volume, in comparison with its predecessors, is something of a disappointment. It gives the impression of a task painstakingly but perfunctorily performed. The organization of the book may be partly responsible for this impression. In the first place the title leads the reader to expect a broader treatment of the subject. A more appropriate title would be "The Training of Social Studies Teachers." In the second place the authors, as the foreword explains, are joint contributors rather than collaborators, and the book suffers from lack of co-ordination. Dr Bagley's contribution, "The Teacher of the Social Studies in the United States," covers less than eighty pages. Part II, "The Selection and Education of Teachers of the Social Studies in Europe" by Dr Alexander, fills twice the space of Part I. A fifty-page appendix by Edward Payson Smith, "A Study of Personal Qualities Essential in a Su-

perior Teacher of the Social Studies," is based on an investigation made by Dr Smith for the commission early in its history. It seems to this reader that the value of the volume would have been enhanced by the development of these raw materials of a book into an integrated whole. As it is no attempt is made to co-ordinate them, except that two pages of Dr Smith's report (pp. 251-253) are reprinted almost without comment by Dr Bagley (pp. 52-54). For the most part the reader is left to draw his own conclusions and to make comparisons if he wishes. The most obvious of these conclusions seem to be that social-studies teachers by the very nature of their subject hold a position of peculiar importance to society; that fitness for such a position demands personal qualities and training of an exceptionally high order; that comparatively few social-studies teachers are so equipped; and that on the whole teachers of the social studies in the United States rank decidedly lower than their brothers abroad, except possibly in England.

In his first chapters Dr Bagley attempts to explain the low repute in which the teaching profession is held in the United States and the prevailingly low standards of teachers' education. He is inclined to lay much of the blame on the decentralization of our school system. Each locality likes to outdo its neighbors in the outward and tangible things, such as buildings and playgrounds, but is willing to save money on teachers, since good teaching qualities can not be exhibited. Hence jobs are offered at low pay to "local girls" rather than to

higher priced workers from away. The resulting immaturity and instability of a large part of our teaching personnel is especially disastrous, Dr Bagley claims, to the teaching of the social studies, which to be successful requires—more than the teaching of any other group of subjects—breadth of understanding, cultural background, maturity of judgment, and a variety of social experience. A comparison of the teaching population made by Coffman in 1910 with the national survey of the education of teachers made by the federal office of education in 1932 shows signs of improvement over the twenty-year period in educational requirements for teachers in both elementary and secondary schools. Dr Bagley believes that this trend is only in its initial stages and that it will, if it continues and if the public attitude toward teaching improves, result in attracting to our schools men and women of broad culture and vital personality—the type of teacher that is essential to effective teaching of the social studies.

The reader will find it interesting to compare the curricula of teacher-training courses in teachers colleges and universities, as given by Dr Bagley, with the curricula of European training schools. Dr Alexander has given the latter in great detail—so much so that much of its value is lost to all but the most careful students of comparative education. Confusion arises, too, from the use of the present tense in the extended account of the training of teachers for the schools of the German Republic, especially when, as on pages 121 to 123, a long excerpt from regulations of the new ministry of education of the Third Reich is suddenly interpolated with no transition or explanation whatsoever. To be sure, as Dr Alexander points out, pre-war, Republican, and Nazi Germany all have one quality in common—an intense enthusiasm for Germany and all things German—which makes them practically agents for government support, whatever the form of government at the moment. In-

deed he finds this quality prevalent to some degree in all European schools. However Dr Alexander wisely attempts few generalizations in regard to European teachers of the social studies, but merely adds to his detailed account of German schools briefer accounts of the training of social-studies teachers in France, Sweden, and England. Of the four countries England has no competitor for the bottom of the list, as Sweden is pre-eminent at the top. There from nine to eleven years of education after the conclusion of the secondary school is required of all candidates, and preference is given to those who have also had several years of practical life experience. Most of them have also traveled extensively, and, while the curriculum is similar to that of the German schools, the teaching of the social studies in Sweden is less nationalistic than on the continent.

Perhaps the majority of teachers reading the volume will gain more from Dr Smith's appendix than from any other part of the book. Dr Smith agrees with Dr Bagley that teaching is an art rather than a science, and that no amount of professional training will transform into a successful social-studies teacher any person who lacks the personal qualities "essential" for practicing that art. In his survey he studied a hundred and one "superior" social-studies teachers, and as a result of his investigation he finally came to the conclusion that the following ten qualities were essential: reverence for truth, intelligent optimism, social altruism, sympathy, impartiality, interpretive mind, progressiveness, curiosity, culture, and imagination. Dr Smith's account of how he arrived at these conclusions should be required reading for all social-studies teachers. It is heartening to the discouraged reader to learn that in spite of American low standards and lack of training Dr Smith had no difficulty in finding the one hundred and one, though his survey was limited to nine eastern states. And the last words of the report, explaining why he limited his investigation to "superior" teachers, strike

a sympathetic note: "I thought I had sufficient data on ordinary teachers. I had seen enough of those."

The challenge to social-studies teachers contained in this volume is emphasized by all three contributors. Not only are the social studies so important to society that every effort ought to be made to have them well taught, but they are also the hardest subjects to teach well. Unfortunately this book, valuable as are the facts it has assembled, does little to show means by which the challenge may be met. The work is marred by some typographical errors, as on pages 90, 153, 219, 253, 256, 259. The excellently annotated bibliography for Part I is a useful supplement for students of the subject.

RUTH WEST

Lewis and Clark High School
Spokane, Washington

Citizenship Education Through the Social Studies. By Robert W. Frederick and Paul H. Sheats. New York: Row-Peterson, 1936. Pp. viii, 312. \$1.60.

This book boldly attempts to present both a philosophical base for a school program and practical suggestions, including illustrative examples, for making that philosophy operative in the classroom. Its appropriate subtitle is "A Philosophy and a Program." The authors are professors of education and government, respectively, of New York State College for Teachers at Albany. They have therefore been closely associated with its laboratory school, the Milne High School, where a similar, although not identical, program to that proposed in this book has been experimentally developed.

"The good citizen must . . . possess a genuine interest in the welfare of mankind . . . and be guided in the expression of that interest by the scientific temper" (p. 13). This definition furnishes the foundation principle for the program outlined. By scientific temper the authors mean rational thought, which involves (1) a respect for

facts and accuracy; (2) the possession of skill in collecting information through reading, observation, listening, experimentation, and introspection; (3) the ability to organize facts; and (4) the ability to use facts to solve problems, to draw conclusions by deduction or induction, to think creatively, and to make judgments. In accordance with this concept, "the basic unifying characteristic" of the suggested program is the concentration upon skills and attitudes rather than subject matter. "Basically the curriculum is not subject matter but what pupils do with or to content materials" (p. 39). The authors give concrete suggestions in methods of teaching pupils to think. They recommend that the materials, activities, and tests for each unit be organized to stress some one skill or ability, for example reading graphs or organizing facts. This does not mean that facts, information, and subject matter are considered unimportant. Facts furnish practice materials for the development of the scientific temper.

The authors list nine rather broad areas of human interest from which subject matter may be selected. They offer practical criteria to be used in that selection. The program "desires to break completely with the traditional geography-history sequences" (p. 139). Accordingly 147 units are grouped under the following major grade headings: Grade 7, The individual and the group; Grade 8, Introduction to the study of man; Grade 9, The individual and the state; Grade 10, The individual and the problems of society; Grade 11, The individual and economic problems; Grade 12, first semester, Man's social heritage and its origins; second semester, Informal opportunities for reading and discussion based upon current periodicals, newspapers, and late books. One may readily agree that the social studies have long been dominated by history and historians without agreeing to having it dominated by academic tradition in government, sociology, and economics as is indicated by the

units suggested for the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades respectively. The authors' suggestion that the "professional leaders forget their differences as subject matter specialists competing for a favored place in the curriculum" (p. 23) seems to be directed only toward historians and geographers. In fairness, however, it must be pointed out that the authors insist and demonstrate that it is more important how pupils handle topics than what particular topics are selected.

To utilize the principles proposed the laboratory plan is recommended. The authors give carefully prepared and concrete suggestions regarding the laboratory equipment needed. The busy teacher, whether or not he is using the methods outlined by this book, will find the comparatively short but complete and practical suggestions regarding sources for obtaining pamphlets, pictures, slides, motion pictures, maps, bibliographies, and other materials exceptionally useful. The authors are vigorous in their condemnation of the textbook. In its stead they suggest: "(1) a series of units or pupil guides; (2) a teachers' manual containing suggestions for the teaching of each unit; (3) a source book of facts and materials for each unit; and (4) testing materials" (pp. 167-168). Elaborate suggestions are given for the preparation of all four items. Two fully developed teacher-unit-plan forms and one complete pupil-unit-guide are given as examples. Seventy pages are devoted to illustrating sample tests for measuring information, attitudes, and various types of skills and abilities.

This is a stimulating and decidedly practical book which deserves to become the property of every alert social-studies teacher. It may very profitably be made the basis for study and discussion in departmental meetings of the social-studies teachers. Instructors in teacher-training institutions will find it a useful reference for their students in methods for the social studies. The chapter on the education of

social-studies teachers should be studied by all those responsible for planning courses for prospective teachers in this department.

ALLEN Y. KING

Supervisor of Social Studies
Cleveland, Ohio

Social Learning. By Donnal V. Smith. New York: Scribner, 1937. Pp. x, 292. \$1.60.

This work incorporates in one volume the principles and more advanced, progressive classroom practices in teaching the social studies. It differs from many similar treatises in that it makes practical suggestions whereby the purposes included in the new pedagogy may be achieved. An important theme of the book is its insistence that socially adequate teaching involves first departing from the fact-centered classroom procedure to establish the child-centered school, wherein pupil interest and pupil activity characterize the program of social education. The case for the psychological basis for selecting materials and class activities is presented under the *gestalt* principles in opposition to the behaviorist school. The *gestalt* psychology is described as showing that meaningful experience or perception is possible only when the elements of learning (seriated learning) are associated and when analysis of related elements takes place. The author does not however disparage mastery of facts, stating that "there is no quarrel with the facts but with the way they are used, their relevance and their amount," because "constant examination of minute elements confuses . . . the direct social observation being undertaken." The behaviorist group is accused of promoting fact-finding procedures, segregating social experience into elements presumed to be valuable as disciplines, and sponsoring a program which ends in dividing the social studies into separate courses where facts may be conveniently and meaninglessly catalogued in seriated learning—mastery of unrelated facts—as the principal outcome. The author pleads for synthesis of these courses, placing emphasis on the

interrelationship that must be recognized, if education is really to provide adequate experience leading to intelligent social thinking, a chief goal of social education. The broader aspects of synthesis from the administrative and practical points of view are not directly discussed. The inference that synthesis will result from practical and extensive use of the project-pupil activity methods seems scarcely a valid hypothesis, since there are definite limitations to the wide use of this procedure under the prevailing organization of social-studies curricula, largely established by specialists in the field for the purposes of logical classification and analysis.

The author labels the major items of social learning and allocates these as curricula for the grades seven to twelve. This classification constitutes a basis for controversy with respect to the placing of many items. However it will be appraised as a valuable guide in putting units of work in definite places in the curriculum. The practical suggestions for a more extensive use of the project-pupil activity procedure will be welcomed for their usefulness. Consistent with the plan of the book, the question of method in handling controversial issues in the class room is treated most practically by reproducing the class session conducted by Professor Roy W. Hatch at the superintendents' meeting of the National Education Association in February, 1936—an item in itself highly valuable to any teacher of the social studies.

ROBERT L. REEVES

Southeastern High School
Detroit, Michigan

Educating Children for Peace. By Imogene M. McPherson. New York: Abingdon Press, 1936. Pp. 190. \$2.00.

Of the four agencies educating children, home, school, amusements, and church, this book deals only with the possibilities open to the church to train children for peace. From the experiments recorded in these interesting pages, the Daily Vacation Bible

School program in many of the varied ethnic and social groups of New York City has awakened profound interest in the idea of brotherhood, international and intra-city, and has offered means not only of expressing but of permanently rooting that interest through study, dramatic portrayals, pageants, and inter-group contacts like "friendship dinners." Materials with which to make flags, costumes, reproductions of homes, and similar concrete aids to understanding foreign people are not expensive, but ingenuity and originality must supplement the rather meager funds available. This is good for students and aids in developing their own personalities as well as in understanding the problems of those about whom they are studying. Church and public school are beginning to comprehend that they have much in common in teaching the social point of view effectively, and such a little book may well prove very helpful as a guide and inspiration.

ETHEL O. WOODRING

Central High School
Tulsa, Oklahoma

Migration and Economic Opportunity. By Carter Goodrich, Bushrod W. Allin, C. Warren Thornthwaite, Hermann K. Brunck, Frederick G. Tryon, Daniel B. Creamer, Rupert B. Vance, Marion Hayes, and others. Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, 1936. Pp. xvii, 763. \$5.00.

Prepared under the direction of Carter Goodrich, professor of economics at Columbia University, with the collaboration of a group of social scientists of distinction, this book at first glance is rather awesome and ponderous, with its numerous maps, tables, charts, and what not, but, as one proceeds to read, the clarity with which the subject is presented and the neatness of the book's planning are apparent. A beginning is made by an analysis of the economic level of the various regions of the United States. An exact measurement of economic levels

is admittedly impossible, but a number of indices have been assembled sufficiently satisfactory for the purpose of the study. County maps of the entire United States show population changes from 1920 to 1930, agricultural income in 1929, the plane of living in 1928 and 1929, and persons on relief in 1933 and 1934 (p. 14). Additional maps on pages 28 and 29 are grouped in a way that portrays by states the relations of wages for common labor, farm wage rates, per capita income, and retail sales per capita. Although in these the relative standing of states is approximately the same, an interesting deviation is found in New York and California which, incidentally, lead all the other states in the foregoing respects. California, with a per capita income roughly 84 per cent and a common labor wage 90 per cent of that of New York, has a slightly higher retail sales rate. The discussion in the text of the significance of these charts is always enlightening and usually cautious. Occasionally exception might be taken by a carping critic, as when Grace Moore is singled out as a product of the mining town of Jellico in the southern Appalachian coal plateaus—an emphasis rather likely to give a false impression of the district in general and of her background in particular, which was that of a well-to-do mercantile family. The net result of this section dealing with contrasting economic levels is to demonstrate, as might be expected, that in general migratory movements are to those regions where the economic level is high.

The chapters following the one dealing with regional contrasts in economic levels examine more minutely the conditions within four large well known trouble areas. There is no insistence that these areas are the only ones where economic levels are low, but their extent and acute distress logically make them the objects of close study. The areas treated in these separate chapters are the southern Appalachian coal plateaus, the cutover lumber regions of the

Great Lakes states, the old cotton belt, and the great plains. Undeniably all these large trouble areas are suffering badly from a surplus population.

The study next proceeds to consider the effects of the changing pattern of industrial location and the changing demand for labor. The tendency of the mineral industries to concentrate in some instances and to scatter in others is described, as is the diffusion of manufactures. The occupational prospects, at present and in the future, in leading economic activities are carefully and, in places, brilliantly analyzed. There is nothing new in the fact that there has been a continuous shifting of employment and location of individuals within industries, and from one industry to another, but this volume organizes and comments upon the data in an admirably fresh and enlightening manner.

The second part of the book, in addition to summarizing the record of unguided migration, describes the experiments in controlling and guiding migration in Russia, Germany, Great Britain, and currently in the United States. Although the authors maintain a nice detachment throughout, their opinions are not concealed (p. 519):

It is clear that the so-called unguided migration has been and remains a most important method of improving the distribution of population in relation to economic opportunity. Unquestionably, however, it is an imperfect instrument, and its failures result at least as often from the lack of movement as from its misdirection. There is nothing in the analysis to suggest a need for supplanting spontaneous movement by any general or rigid system of control. . . . But the imperfections [of unguided migration] are quite serious enough, and their human consequences sufficiently tragic, to justify an interest in the possibility of more intelligent guidance.

The closing lines of the study are equally pointed:

Our studies have disclosed no hope that the major problems of industrial society could be solved by any bold strokes of population redistribution. But they have pointed to particular types of misguided movement which should be checked, to wastes and tragedies in the migratory process which should be lessened, and to the still more serious failure of migration to give

adequate relief to the population pressure of our less favored areas. Our final emphasis, therefore, must fall on the importance of mobility. Without great migratory movements we cannot possibly redress our sectional inequalities or use our material and human resources to the best advantage. In a world of changing opportunities, moreover, there must always be many for whom the offer to move offers greater security than even the most favored location. It should therefore be a cardinal point of social policy to encourage mobility and to give it surer purpose and direction. But no possible placement of people could make them safe in an insecure economy, and no migration policy can itself guarantee the indispensable increases in economic opportunity.

SAMUEL MCKEE, JR

Columbia University

The Cotton South and American Trade Policy.

By Peter Molyneaux. World Affairs Books, No. 17. New York: National Peace Conference, 1936. Pp. 63. 75c in cloth, 35c in paper.

Markets and Men: A Study of Artificial Control Schemes in Some Primary Industries.

By J. W. F. Rowe. New York: Macmillan, 1936. Pp. ix, 259. \$2.00.

In *The Cotton South and American Trade Policy* Peter Molyneaux, as befits an editor of the widely read *Texas Weekly*, is concerned with cotton and the South. Moreover, he has a very definite thesis to present. It is not a new thesis, for Mr Molyneaux himself has seen to that; and, indeed, so have many others, although perhaps less persuasively.

The facts are very simple. Seventy-five years ago the South produced 90 per cent of the world's cotton crop; in the decade of the 1920's it produced close to 60 per cent of the total, and now its proportion of the world's output has shrunk to 40 per cent.

And why? Is the world consuming less cotton? Not at all. Indeed, cotton consumption throughout the world is increasing, although consumption of American cotton is decreasing. And while the rest of the world has been increasing the production of cotton enormously, the United States has seen fit to curtail production.

Curtailling production, and in other ways artificially raising the price of American

cotton above the world price, could hardly be expected to make the United States a more attractive market to foreign cotton buyers. But production control, as Mr Molyneaux points out, in the first instance was merely a desperate attempt to adjust the cotton economy to the harsh fact of a constantly declining foreign demand. Deep-seated forces had long been at work, and as early as 1930 foreign consumption of American cotton fell 1.2 million bales below consumption for 1929, while at the same time foreign consumption of foreign cotton increased 1.3 million bales over the previous year. And of course nothing had happened to the quality of American cotton. The trouble lay in our international trade policy and in the efforts being made by several cotton-importing countries to develop their own sources of supply. But insofar as the foreign trade policy of the United States is at fault the economic salvation of the South, according to the author, depends on a more intelligent approach to our present position in world affairs.

From the beginning of our national existence down to the World War the United States was a debtor nation—always in debt, and in large amounts, to the leading countries with which we do business. In order to make payment this country, or its citizens collectively, had to export each year goods or services with aggregate value far in excess of the value of total imports. Much emphasis was put on protecting home industries with tariffs sufficiently high to discourage imports. Exporters, of course, had to sell in a relatively "free" world market, whereas their living and production costs had to be met in a market artificially held above the world level by a tariff which discouraged plenty and low prices. But since it was desirable that exports exceed imports anyway, no great harm was done.

But the war turned things upside down. It not only gave us a chance to pay off our debts, but almost before we knew it we

were lending vast sums to the Allied Powers, i.e., we were shipping them billions worth of food, clothing, and all manner of raw materials and munitions. When the smoke cleared away American capitalists made additional large advances to individuals and corporations among friendly and enemy powers alike. And so the United States became a creditor nation, the holder of I. O. U.'s running into staggering sums.

People who sit down and think things through soon saw that a new era had been born. This country would now have to import, they said, altogether each year a great deal more than it exported, for it is the only way in which large international debts can be collected. Yet instead of lowering the trade barriers so that foreign goods could come in, Congress—harassed by a relentless lobby—raised the tariff in 1922 and again in 1930.

And what has all this to do with cotton?

A great deal. For if Italy, Germany, France, and England—and many other countries—can not sell their goods in the United States, they have not the means wherewith to buy the things we would like to sell, and cotton has for a century or more been the largest single item among our exports. If our trade policy makes it impossible for these countries to buy our cotton, we can only blame ourselves—or the advocates of a high tariff—if the foreign countries turn to with a vengeance and develop their own sources of supply.

Mr Molyneux is convinced that the only hope for the South lies in a general leveling of our trade barriers. Moreover as a very desirable byproduct, which helps to explain why the National Peace Conference published this booklet, Mr Molyneux feels that much international tension might be relieved if countries which cannot produce their own cotton could have free access to the cheapest markets. "Access," of course, means the privilege of selling their goods in our market without the necessity of hurdling a formidable tariff wall, thus building up credits or bank deposits in this coun-

try which, in turn, could be spent for our goods.

In *Markets and Men*, J. W. F. Rowe, an Englishman, undertakes to examine the mechanism and effects of a half dozen artificial control schemes—specifically those that have been tried in coffee, wheat, sugar, rubber, tin, and American cotton. For the most part the book is rather dull reading. And while the reviewer is not qualified to pass judgment on the thoroughness and intimacy of its treatment of commodities other than cotton, he is prepared in this one case to say that the author's knowledge of the ways, customs, and economics of our Cotton South is bookish in the extreme.

The study is not without its good points, however. For one thing, it draws a sharp distinction between valorization and restriction schemes, terms which some of us use rather loosely. To wit: ". . . the essence of a valorization scheme, in the technical sense of the word, is the regulation of the flow of available supplies to the market *through some period of time* [author's italics], whereas the essence of a restriction scheme is the limitation of available supplies for a period of time to a level below what they would otherwise be" (p. 220).

It is in analyzing the effects of restriction schemes in time of general prosperity and of general depression that the author is at his best. (1) During prosperity, he concludes restriction is a false remedy if applied as a means of meeting a permanent decline in demand, and in the end will only complicate inevitable readjustments. In time of world depression, however, restriction may be justifiable in the face of a permanent shrinkage in the market simply on the grounds that readjustments during this period are likely to be fraught with maximum difficulties. (2) Restriction is sound as a means of obtaining relief from a temporary recession in demand both in times of general prosperity and depression, provided no substantial proportion of the productive capacity of the industry is in the advanced stages of obsolescence. (3)

Finally, restriction is not at any time a sound remedy for excess capacity except in cases where the techniques of production are virtually stationary. Yet again, during depression good excuses may be found for restriction schemes as a means of overcoming the ill effects of excess capacity since, in any case, the inevitable readjustments are most difficult to make during this period.

ROMAN L. HORNE

Federal Reserve Board
Washington, D. C.

Government, Business, and the Individual. By Elizabeth Stoffregen May. Washington: American Assoc. of Univ. Women, 1936. Pp. 112. 50c.

This pamphlet is a guide for studying, discussing, and teaching the relation of the United States government, business, and the individual. On page 7 the definitions of liberty by John Stuart Mill, Walter Lippman, Norman Thomas, and Emma Goldman are worthy of consideration. They lead to a discussion of "Individualism and Collectivism," followed by the much mooted question of "more or less government." Some of the new government measures, social security, banking, speculation, farm adjustments, business practices, conservation of natural resources, are carefully considered. Animated topics for discussion and modern references afford useful classroom and panel material. It is not necessary to have a technical background in political science, or economics, or sociology, to enjoy these pages. Every American who is thinking about "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness" and who takes the time to peruse this pamphlet will thank the author, who is assistant professor of economics at Goucher College and research associate in social studies of the American Association of University Women, for a better understanding of our present form of government.

HELLEN B. PINK

Central High School
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Our Ineffective State. By William H. Hessler. New York: Holt, 1937. Pp. xxi, 281. \$2.50.

This is a very stimulating book on practical political science, such as might serve well a teacher of civics in the senior high school and junior college, or be put in the hands of upperclassmen in college once they had built up a general background in political science and economics.

The "paramount problem of our time," says the author, is to "increase the efficiency of government without inviting tyranny" lest "it fall so far short of serving public expectation that men will resort to violence to gain their ends." He is equally specific on the ends for which greater efficiency is needed, and on the means by which it is to be attained. The ends are economic: security and freedom of the individual from the deadlocks imposed by unregulated competition. The means are political: constitutional and administrative reform. He offers several major political changes. To forestall for the future such not uncommon spectacles as a state department endeavoring to expand foreign trade by international agreements, while an agriculture department restricts the production of export crops, he proposes an organized cabinet deliberating collectively on national policy and taking collective responsibility for its program. Deadlock and waste of energy in conflict between the President and the Congress he would minimize first by giving cabinet members the right to speak in Congress, second by empowering the President to dissolve the House and call new elections once during each legislative term. He favors giving more power to rule-making bodies like the securities and exchanges commission, the federal communications commission, and the interstate commerce commission, which carry out general policies laid down by Congress. He proposes only two constitutional amendments. The first would give the federal government concurrent power, with the states, to legislate for the general welfare. The

second would make easier the amending process itself.

It is impossible here to point out how closely all these reforms are related to one another. But one more reform the author believes necessary for the success of all the others, and this we may follow up as a sample both of the cogency of his reasoning, and of the organic nature of political life. This is thoroughgoing "civil service reform." If the government is to undertake increasing responsibilities in social legislation and economic regulation, it must command a civil service recruited on the basis of merit, not "pull." If this legislation is to be general in its terms, leaving wide rule-making powers in the hands of the administrative staffs, again these staffs must be of high caliber, on permanent tenure, and free from shortview political pressure. Only with such large opportunities and with administrative staffs of corresponding merits can the reformed cabinet attract men of high quality to the secretariats. Only by cutting the tie of patronage can the executive exercise the necessary leadership in policy making which a job-hungry Congress is now in a position to flout.

Crucial to his whole program are, really, his proposals for constitutional amendment, not his demand for a highgrade merit system. The merit system is a prerequisite to the success of his reforms. But of what use is a politically effective state if the economic and social ends it is to pursue are blocked by the Constitution and the Supreme Court? Constitutional change, a far wider thing than political reform, then becomes the means to the effective state.

Nevertheless, as a description of how governments can and do work, the book is very good. Non-technically written, any literate adult can read it; and a good teacher will find stimulus in translating its adult style into terms suitable for consumption by the young.

PAUL LEWINSON

The National Archives
Washington, D. C.

First Book of the Earth. 1936. Pp. 267. 80c.
Nature Peoples. 1936. Pp. 348. 88c. **Communities of Men.** 1936. Pp. 392. 92c. **Peoples and Countries.** 1936. Pp. 482. \$1.08.
The Building of America. 1936. Pp. 508. \$1.08. **Man at Work: His Industries.** 1937. Pp. 529. \$1.12. **Man at Work: His Arts and Crafts.** 1937. Pp. 501. \$1.28. All by Harold Rugg and Louise Krueger and all New York: Ginn.

The foregoing volumes constitute the textual materials of a social-studies program for the elementary school. A pupil's workbook accompanies each volume. These volumes have been designed as an introduction to the study of Man and His Changing Society which is the general caption for Dr Rugg's entire social-studies program. These books have been designed to meet the reading abilities of children beginning with the third grade and ending with the sixth grade. While the volumes may be used singly and in any one of two or three different grades, it is advisable to use the entire series: the first and second volumes for the third grade; the third and fourth volumes for the fourth grade; the fifth and sixth volumes for the fifth grade; and the seventh and eighth volumes for the sixth grade.

This social-studies program represents, in part, the culmination of many years of research and experimentation by, and under the direction of, the authors. The numerous writings of Harold Rugg evidence the scope of his research and experimentation. Although Louise Krueger has written with distinction, she has limited herself largely to teaching. She is to be regarded for her work as a teacher and as director of the primary division of the Dalton Schools in New York City. In preparing this course of study the authors depended upon three important sources, the writings of "frontier thinkers" in the conventional social-science subjects, the writings of social and educational psychologists, and the findings of frontier teachers in our progressive public and experimental schools.

An educational publication must be judged on the basis of its underlying philosophy. If this series is examined from this point of view its central feature becomes apparent at once. It is the skillful integration of materials selected from the various social-science subjects and other school subjects which are organized in the form of "units-of-understanding" in terms of child needs, interests, and experiences. This point of departure is effectively stated by Dr Rugg in *American Life and the School Curriculum* (1936, p. 336) in the following words: "We cannot emphasize too strongly the point that the new units-of-study differ from the old ones in two respects: (1) they start from the social and personal needs and experience of the students; (2) they ramify ruthlessly across any conventional subject boundaries in so far as this is necessary to make available all meanings essential for understanding and all situations necessary to the vital, wholehearted expression of the student." This principle of organization is illustrated in Volume I, when in discussing "How We Know About the Universe" the point of departure is made by reference to a picture of a girl who had constructed a home-made telescope (child experience and visualization). The story is carried forward by means of pictures and narrative; and geography, science, and history are integrated in a discussion of the development of the telescope and the consequent expansion of knowledge regarding the universe. The currency of this topic of study is suggested by reference to the Mount Wilson Observatory and to the 200-inch telescope lense under construction at the present time. The ultimate objective which motivated the organization of materials throughout the series is that such meanings and attitudes must be developed as will enable juvenile minds to understand the various modes of living among the peoples of the world and the major social problems with which they are confronted.

A second important feature of this program of study is the effective utilization of

graphic materials in the form of interesting pictures, charts, tables, and maps, of questions, child conversation, stories, and poetry. All combine to make up a swiftly moving story of how man has improved his means and manner of subsistence through the centuries and of the origin and development of institutionalized living.

The series includes a large amount of new material. Volume I, for instance, contains information about the evolution and nature of the universe and the appearance and early development of man upon the earth. The inclusion of the Ona Indians of Tierra del Fuego, the Fuzzy-Haired Papuans, and the Baganda of Uganda in a discussion of *Nature Peoples*, the second volume, suggests a departure from the beaten path. The final volume of the series promises to contain much new material showing how man learned to live on the earth by creating his arts and institutions, by turning custom into law, and by substituting science for magic.

Another feature of the series is that of planned repetition. The treatment of climate will serve for the purpose of illustration. The term is simply defined in the first part of this same second volume. Its component elements are said to be temperature, rainfall, and wind. After further description of "nature peoples" new questions about climate are raised—the influence of location (latitude) and altitude on climate. In the fourth volume more specific reference is made to climate in treating the particular *Peoples and Countries* included in the book. In the sixth volume climate is treated as a regional characteristic and as a factor in the settlement and development of communities. Thus climate and other factors, terms, and concepts are dealt with according to the principle of planned repetition and in meaningful relationships rather than infrequently and as theories or abstractions.

Volume I, *The First Book of the Earth*, opens with a description of the nature of the universe. This is followed with the story

of the origin and evolution of the earth, the appearance of plant and animal life, and finally the story of the slow emergence of man. The book contains a wealth of interesting material, some of which is detailed to the point of confusion. The reviewer is of the opinion that only the most skillful teacher will be able to handle the material effectively in the third grade.

Volume II, *Nature Peoples*, is given over to the description of eight peoples of the world today. These were selected on the basis of varying geographical conditions. Among them are the Little Bushmen of Africa, Ona Indians, Copper Eskimos, Fuzzy-Haired Papuans, and the Arab Bedouins. They are the food gatherers who are dependent almost entirely upon the geography of their environment.

Volume III, *Communities of Men*, is organized around the concept of "community" as a way in which men live together. Part I opens with a definition of terms. Distinctions are drawn between the manner of life as found within a family, hamlet, village, town, and city. This is followed by a description of four typical communities: Andor, Africa; Khonoma, Asia; Dinkelsbuhl, Germany; and Corfe Castle, England. Part II gives a more detailed story of community plans and how communities are fed and protected. Part III tells the story of the origin and development of early American "Gateway" communities. The selection of New Amsterdam as a point of departure results in a misconception and necessitates a later explanation that the Spanish preceded the Dutch by a full century. Part IV is geographic and summary in character explaining in an interesting way "Why Communities Begin Where They Do."

Volume IV, *Peoples and Countries*, tells the story of how people live in ten selected countries: China, India, and Russia in Asia; England, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy in Europe; and Peru and Brazil in South America. It is the story of ten differ-

ent civilizations molded by different geographical influences and evolving through their unique historical backgrounds. The selection of the European countries on the basis of their importance and the Asiatic countries on the basis of their size suggests an inconsistency. The resulting omission of Japan makes for an inadequate treatment of Asia.

Volume V, *The Building of America*, is organized around the theme of the westward movement. It is the story of the development of outstanding regions of the United States. In each case the geographic factors of climate, resources, and topography are clearly pointed out.

Volume VI, *Man at Work: His Industries*, is the story of the advance of man in his mastery over the physical world. The treatment is historical in character. It is the story of men as producers of food and clothing, builders in iron and steel, power-makers, toolmakers, and traders who through the development of transportation and communication have become specialists in their various enterprises.

Volume VII, *Man at Work: His Arts and Crafts*, is a companion volume to *Man at Work: His Industries*. It is the story of the evolution of custom, law, art, and literature.

Volume VIII, *Mankind Throughout the Ages*, will provide the historical synthesis for the entire series. This will be a story of civilization reminding one of the conventional course in "Old World Background." It will develop two concepts: man as a child of the past and man as a child of nature.

This course of study is not a social-science course. It is a social-studies course. Materials selected from the social sciences and other school subjects have been organized around child needs, interests, and experiences, for teaching purposes. It is claimed that the series contains more geography and history than can be found in conventional courses of study. Yet the conventional social scientist and the scientific geographer will object to certain omissions, to a number

of sweeping generalizations, and to the organization of materials. However, the acid test for any course of study is that of classroom application. If children are able to achieve effectively what the authors postulate as the objectives of the course then criticism will have to turn on more than mere content, organization, and method.

RALPH W. CORDIER

State Teachers College
Clarion, Pennsylvania

A Brave Young Land. By Edna McGuire. New York: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. viii, 392. \$1.08.

One of the most attractive books of its type published, this text is the second of a series of American histories for elementary schools. In this particular volume there are four divisions, each a complete unit of study. They begin with Europe's awakening interest in America and end with the establishment of the young nation at the close of the American Revolution. Emphasis upon the social and cultural growth of the nation is clearly evident. The author's foreword, written to boys and girls, reveals a keen realization of the needs and interests of children, which is reflected throughout the whole text. The vivid narrative style is appealing to children; at times they may almost imagine themselves living in that era and place. One of the most valuable features of the text is the provision for the study of new words. At the end of each of the two sections of the four divisions is a "Word Game." Here the new words are brought to the child's attention in a motivating manner. For further word study the "Word List" at the end of the book provides meanings for most of the words which might give trouble in understanding to the child. The value of the book is largely enhanced by its attractive mechanical make-up. Since it is a little larger than the usual textbook, wide margins are possible. An excellent quality of paper with twelve-point type should reduce eyestrain to a minimum. The illustrations invite the child to read.

Eight fullpage color plates, as well as those in black and white, provide delightful glimpses of characters and places. Although the maps are all in black and white, they are very usable. A complete absence of graphs and cartoons may be considered an objection by some teachers, although the reviewer has no such feeling.

The teaching helps are decidedly good. In addition to the "Word Game" and "Word List" already described, each section has its own "Check Test," "Some Things to Do," and "Some Books to Read." Considerable variety in the several tests makes them of real value to both teacher and child. Responsibility for doing the extra activities is placed on the child, but the author's skillful motivation should make the child eager to do them all. Although written for a basal text, this book may well be a valuable asset as a supplementary history for use in the classroom or as outside reading in the school library.

FLORENCE R. TRYON

Florida State College for Women
Tallahassee

Our America. By Irving R. Melbo. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1937. Pp. viii, 402. 96c.

This textbook for the elementary grades consists of the stories of twenty-seven persons who have made definite contributions to the development of American civilization. The presentation of the characters is a chronological one up to the present time, after which their contemporary activity is clearly revealed. Stories of leaders in aviation, business, journalism, engineering, art, science, education, and other fields indicate an attempt on the part of the author to give to the child a picture of the many-sided development of the civilization of which he is a part. Much of this material is the result of considerable research and direct contact with the persons whose stories are written. This makes possible the inclusion of fresh and distinctive materials.

Underlying Melbo's book is his own

philosophy that the story of this nation must be "essentially the story of its men and women, of how they lived and worked, and of how and what they achieved in their efforts to make the United States a better, safer, and happier place in which to live." This philosophy is clearly evident, for each person included is not considered in an isolated story but in relation to events, in connection with the progress of the country, and as a force in the present as well as the past. The child can hardly fail to have a picture of the continuing and contemporaneous development of the nation; he sees that achievement is going on today. Opportunity for training in citizenship is given through the life story of each person in its relation to his particular field of endeavor in which the qualities of a good citizen may be brought to the attention of the child. They thus become the means of the development of desirable character traits. The narrative style of the author is simple, direct, and well within the comprehension of elementary school pupils. The chapter subheadings arouse interest by their well stated suggestions as to what the story will tell. Typical is this one used in chapter xxiv as introductory to the stories of Weymouth, Purcell, and Strauss: "They are building things that couldn't be done."

The book is offered in two editions, textbook and reader. Identical material is given in the reader edition, but the lack of an index might become an obstacle to the satisfactory use of this edition. The binding is attractive and durable, but the paper is of only fair quality. The type, larger than usual, is regular and clear. Twelve colored illustrations, full page in size, are especially attractive and are the work of a reputable artist. Others of black and white add to the attractiveness of the book, although some objection may be registered because so many of them are placed in the middle of the pages, thus dividing the reading material. This would undoubtedly be considered by those teachers who used the reader edition.

To the teacher of elementary social studies this book should be of considerable value. Through its story form and its organization provision is made for an easy transition from primary to elementary level. The study exercises and activities are usable, and the selective bibliography is unusually good, especially for the more recent leaders. It is natural that some objection to the list of leaders chosen to make up *Our America* will be heard, and perhaps rightly so. But Melbo does not say these twenty-seven are the most important nor does he expect a teacher to limit the child's knowledge to his list. He does contend that his list is a representative one, one that will give to the child a right and sane view of how "Our America" has come to be and how it is continuing to grow and progress.

FLORENCE R. TRYON

Florida State College for Women
Tallahassee

Audio-Visual Aids for Teachers. By Mary E. Townsend and Alice G. Stewart. New York: Wilson, 1937. Pp. 131. 75c.

This second volume in the Social Science Service Series is a useful companion to *Guides to Study Materials for Teachers* published in 1936. It lists for the convenience of teachers—and no doubt librarians—in junior and senior high schools, junior colleges, and adult education classes selected atlases, maps and globes, pictures, charts, posters, post cards, silent and sound pictures, slides, and models. One section is devoted to radio programs and another to museums and their services. Address and prices are noted. There is a valuable introductory list of bibliographies of visual aids.

E. M. H.

A Unit Review Outline of American Civilization. By Tyler Kepner. New York: Harper, 1937. Pp. xii, plus eight appendices and index, 283. Cloth \$1.20, paper 80c.

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nations in American history, but it will admirably serve any history classes as a topical review. It may also be used as a factual and organizing guide in an original survey of the field. The general plan is that of *America: Its History and People*, by Harold U. Faulkner and Tyler Kepner (1934). There are five units, subdivided in topics and subtopics. *Unit One* is "America—A Part of the British Empire." *Unit Two* is "The Growth of Democracy in America." This unit outlines our political history from 1783 to the present; its wording raises the question as to whether that is not too sweeping a generalization for a unit so inclusive. *Unit Three* is "The Industrialization of America." Topic headings indicate the splendid material outlined, each topic treating the particular development from earliest times to the present, "The Frontier and the American Land Policy," "The Industrial Revolution," "Corporate Organization and Consolidation," "The Rise of Armies of Labor" (including immigration), "Transportation by Land, Water, and Air," "The Embattled Farmer and the Controversy Over Inflation," "Economic Crises and Panics," "Banking and the Government," "The Rise and Fall of the Tariff," "The Regulation of Big Business by the Government," "The Conservation Movement and Public Utilities." *Unit Four* is "Cultural and Social America," with topics as follows, "The Classes and the Masses," "The Progress of Education in a Democracy," "The Rise of an American Culture" (press, literature, architecture, art, music, science), "The Soul of America: Religion, Reform, and Social Justice." *Unit Five* is "America as a World Power," tracing our foreign relations since 1783. Appendix I, the Constitution, includes interpretive headings for each section and gives superseded sections in italics. Appendix II tabulates events chronologically in columns corresponding to the units of the book. The remaining appendices are "Sovereign States," "Chief Justices," "Biographical Sketches" of forty-

three "representative figures in respect both to the important periods and the varied phases of American history," "Representative College Entrance Examination Board Questions Arranged by Units," "Recent College Entrance Examination Papers," "Recent Regents Examination Papers."

The method used is a factual outline, "buttressed with occasional interpretation and summary statements." An illustration will indicate this best (from page 197)

XXXVII. The Interdependency of Modern Economic Life.

A. America's Choice: Economic Nationalism or Internationalism?

1. Factors in interdependency.

- a. No nation is self-sufficient—the necessity for foreign trade.
- b. The desirability of exports and imports balancing over the years.
- c. Economic prosperity of the nation dependent upon an active foreign trade (map, p. 196).

2. Possible barriers to commercial intercourse.

- a. A *tariff policy* that fails to recognize interdependency or fails to promote prosperity.
- b. A *monetary standard* that fails to create equality of trading opportunity.

B. America's Investment and the War Debts.

1. The far-flung investments (map, p. 198).

a. The United States the most important creditor nation—in 1932:

- (1) Private debts abroad: about \$18,000,000,000.
- (2) War debts abroad: over \$11,000,000,000.

b. Significance of these investments.

- (1) Increased our concern in the political and economic stability of the world.
- (2) The peril of Imperialism: tended to dry up our foreign markets, with consequent bad effect upon our industry, agriculture, commerce, and labor.

"There are 48 clear-cut maps, graphs, and charts." Where content permits, as in comparison of colonies, the tabular form is used.

A Unit Review Outline of American Civilization is based on two assumptions: (1) that there is still a place for examination "cram books;" (2) that the arrangement of history by topics is superior to a chronological organization. If these assumptions are granted there can be little but praise, if they are not granted the book still has great usefulness. A generation ago factual outline books were common. Since then the

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